



THE
PRINCIPLES
OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR;
COMPRISING THE SUBSTANCE OF THE MOST APPROVED
ENGLISH GRAMMARS EXTANT.
WITH
COPIOUS EXERCISES
IN
PARSING AND SYNTAX,
FOR THE USE OF ACADEMIES AND COMMON SCHOOLS.
A NEW EDITION, REVISED AND CORRECTED;
WITH
AN APPENDIX
OF VARIOUS AND USEFUL MATTER.

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PREFACE.

A KNOWLEDGE of English Grammar is very properly considered an indispensable part of an English education ; and is now taught as such, in all our Academies and Common Schools. The great number of elementary works which have recently appeared on this subject, is a pleasing evidence of the attention which has been bestowed upon it. Among these, none has enjoyed greater favour than the Grammar of LINDLEY MURRAY ; and the high rank which it still holds among the numerous works which have appeared since its publication, is a decided testimony to the soundness of its principles and the excellence of the system. With all its excellence, however, it is far from being incapable of improvement ; and the attempt to add to its value as a manual for schools, by correcting what is erroneous, retrenching what is superfluous or unimportant, compressing what is prolix, elucidating what is obscure, determining what was left doubtful, supplying what is defective, and bringing up the whole to that state of improvement to which the labours of eminent scientific and practical writers of the present day have so greatly contributed, can hardly fail, if well executed, to prove acceptable to the public. Such was my design ; and though there may be reason to regret that it has not been undertaken by some one more capable of doing justice to the subject, still it is hoped that the labour bestowed, in order to carry it into effect, will not be altogether in vain.

In endeavouring to avoid the minutiae and diffuseness of the larger Grammar, care has been taken to guard against the opposite extreme. The abridgments of Murray now in use, are little more than a synopsis of the larger work ; presenting a mere outline of the subject, altogether too meagre to be of much service to the learner. The same remark is applicable to a great number of smaller works which have been published with a similar view ; namely, to serve as an introduction to a more extended system. They are incapable themselves of imparting a satisfactory knowledge of the subject ; and yet it often happens, perhaps even in a majority of cases, that those who have

commenced with the "introduction," have neither the time nor the means to get beyond it: and besides, unless the "introduction" be constructed on the same principle of arrangement and expression with the one which is intended to succeed, it will probably be found worse than useless; for when a particular arrangement and phraseology have become familiar to the mind, there is great difficulty in studying another work on the same subject, in which the arrangement and expression are materially different. A Grammar, to be really valuable, ought to be *simple* in its style and arrangement, so as to be adapted to the capacity of youth, for whose use it is designed; *comprehensive*, so as to be a sufficient guide in the most difficult, as well as in easy cases; and its principles and rules should be rendered familiar to the learner by numerous examples and exercises.

To meet these views of what a Grammar for the use of Schools ought to be, the present compilation has been made,—with what success, a discerning public, to whose judgment it is respectfully submitted, will decide. Utility, not novelty, has been aimed at. In collecting materials, I have freely availed myself of the labours of others who have treated on the subject since the days of MURRAY, and particularly of those whose object has been similar to my own. LENNIE'S "Principles of English Grammar," deservedly esteemed, in Britain, the best compend for the use of schools which has yet appeared, I have adopted as the ground plan of my work. The works of MURRAY, ANGUS, CONNELL, GRANT, CROMBIE, HILEY, WEBSTER, and others in the extensive collection of my friend Dr. BECK, to which I have enjoyed free access, have been consulted; and from all of them has been carefully selected, condensed, and arranged, whatever seemed to be suitable to my purpose. For several valuable suggestions, also, I am indebted to Dr. T. R. BECK, and several other literary friends, who kindly examined my MSS. before they were sent to press, and freely communicated their sentiments. On the whole, it is believed that there is nothing of much importance in Murray's larger Grammar, or in the works of subsequent writers, that will not be found condensed here.

On the subject of Etymology, much expansion has been deemed unnecessary: I have therefore generally contented myself with stating results, without embarrassing the work with the processes, often tedious and obscure, which have led to them. In the classification of words, almost all writers differ from each other; and though on this subject there has been much discussion, nothing has yet been proposed which, **on the whole, appears less objectionable in principle, or more conve-**

nient in practice, than that of Murray, which is therefore generally retained.

In Syntax, greater fulness has been considered proper. In the arrangement of the Rules, scarcely two writers have followed the same order; and that here adopted is somewhat different from any other. Without regarding much the usual division of Syntax into *Concord* and *Government*, those rules are placed first which appear to be most simple, and of most frequent occurrence. Care has been taken, however, to connect with a leading rule those of a subordinate character allied to it, and to add under every rule such notes and observations as appeared necessary to its illustration. Copious exercises in false syntax follow each rule, generally on the same page; and exercises adapted to the notes, &c. are subjoined, distinguished by the number of the note to which they belong. For the purpose of better exercising the judgment of the pupil, there have been introduced at intervals, exercises on the preceding rules promiscuously arranged; and at the end, promiscuous exercises are furnished on all the rules and observations;—the whole forming a body of exercises, containing perhaps not fewer examples than Murray's separate volume of Exercises on the Rules of Syntax. In this, economy as well as convenience has been consulted. The leading principles have been made so prominent by being printed on a large type, that they may be easily studied by the youngest classes without a separate compend. Every thing necessary for the fuller expansion and illustration of these principles, has been introduced in its place; and the whole furnished with questions and appropriate exercises, in order to render every part familiar to the mind of the pupil as he advances, so that no larger treatise, and no separate book of exercises, will be necessary. The arrangement of the exercises on syntax on the same page with the rule which they are designed to illustrate, it is believed, will greatly diminish the labour, both of teacher and pupil, in going over this important part of the subject.

Another object steadily kept in view in this compilation is to render it a profitable introduction to classical studies. While all languages differ from each other in their mode of inflexion, and in some forms of expression peculiar to themselves, usually denominated *idioms*, their general principles are, to a very great extent, the same. It would seem, therefore, to be proper, in constructing grammars for different languages, that the principles, so far as they are the same, should be arranged in the same order, and expressed as nearly as possible in the same words. Were this carefully done, the study of the grammar of

one language would be a very important aid in the study of another; and the opportunity thus afforded of seeing wherein they agree and wherein they differ, would of itself furnish a profitable exercise in comparative grammar. But when a Latin grammar is put into the hands of a boy, differing widely in its arrangement or phraseology from the English grammar which he had previously studied, and then in due time a Greek grammar different from both, not only is the benefit derived from the analogy of the different languages in a great measure lost, but the whole subject is made to appear intolerably intricate and mysterious. To remedy this evil, I resolved, some time ago, to publish a series of Grammars of the English, Latin, and Greek languages, arranged in the same order, and expressed as nearly in the same words as the genius of the languages would permit. In the prosecution of this purpose, the Greek Grammar, on the foundation of Moor's, was published in 1831; the English Grammar of Murray, in a condensed form, embracing every thing valuable from later works, is now offered to the public; and if the plan is favourably received, the Latin Grammar of Alexander Adam, adapted to the system, with improvements, will follow as soon as possible.

PREFACE

TO THE FIFTH EDITION.

This work has been again thoroughly revised, and every error discovered in the preceding editions has been carefully corrected. A section has been introduced in its proper place on *Person*, as a modification or accident of the noun. The terms *Transitive* and *Intransitive*, have been substituted for *Active* and *Neuter*, as a more appropriate and accurate designation of the two classes of verbs. By this means all ambiguity and controversy is avoided on this point—the term *Active* is confined to one appropriate use,—and the word *Neuter* is dispensed with so as to be applied solely to the gender of nouns. The designation of the tenses formerly used is still retained, while that recommended, p. 38, as more expressive and appropriate is at the request of some distinguished teachers, inserted in brackets after the other; so that the

one or the other, or both, may be conveniently used as the teacher may direct. A page and a half has been added to the section on composition, and an Appendix of 28 pages has been added, containing a brief statement and examination of some points relative to grammar itself—the classification and designation of the parts of speech—an etymological vocabulary of grammatical terms, shewing their derivation and meaning—a list of Latin and French words and phrases, often to be met with in English books,—and a selection and explanation of the more common law terms, constantly occurring in the reports of legal proceedings, and the debates of our legislative assemblies in this country.

The author takes this opportunity of renewing his grateful acknowledgments to those gentlemen who have kindly examined the work, and favored him with their observations on it. To the hints derived from these, he is chiefly indebted for the improvements that appear in this edition. The favorable opinion expressed of the work by the most competent judges, encourages him to hope that the object he had in view, to furnish a simple, concise, and comprehensive manual of English Grammar, better adapted to the use of academies and common schools than any yet published, is now in a good degree attained.

The Latin Grammar formerly announced has been published, and also the revised edition of the Greek Grammar. These works now form a complete series of grammars—English, Latin, and Greek all on the same plan, arranged in the same order, and having the definitions, rules, and leading parts expressed as near as possible in the same language. By this method the confusion and unnecessary labor occasioned by studying grammars, in these languages, constructed on different principles is avoided, the study of one is rendered a profitable introduction to the study of another, and an opportunity is furnished to the enquiring student of comparing the languages in their grammatical structure, and seeing at once wherein they agree, and wherein they differ. The whole is now submitted to the examination and favorable consideration of a discerning public.

ALBANY ACADEMY, Sept. 23, 1842.

CONTENTS OF APPENDIX.

I. Grammar,	189
II. Classification of words,	191
III. Remarks on Different Classes of Words,	192
IV. Grammatical Nomenclature,	202
V. Etymological Glossary of Grammatical terms, ...	204
VI. Explanation of French Words and Phrases,	209
VII. Explanation of Latin Words and Phrases,	211
VIII. Explanation of Law terms,	213

DIRECTIONS FOR USING THIS GRAMMAR.

THIS Grammar being designed for the use of the more advanced scholar, as well as of the mere beginner, a few suggestions, the result of some experience, respecting the mode of using it, may not be improper. In commencing any study, the first care of the judicious teacher will be to excite a proper interest in it in the minds of his pupils, and to render their progress as easy and pleasant as possible. Without this, the easiest and most engaging studies may be rendered irksome and disgusting, and all relish for, as well as progress in them effectually prevented. This evil will be avoided, and a proper interest in the study of English Grammar excited and maintained, if the following course of study be carefully observed :—

1. Very young pupils, or mere beginners at any age, should be required to study only the *leading parts* which are generally distinguished in the Grammar by a *larger type*. The subordinate parts in smaller type, together with the whole of § 2; § 19 from No. 5 to 9; and the Obs. in § 20, 21, 22, and 24 should be omitted till afterwards. And in order to vary the exercise, from ten to twenty or thirty words of § 32 may be given with each lesson from the beginning, so that the whole may be gone through without loss of time, and almost without an effort.

2. No larger portion should be assigned for each recitation than the class can easily master, and till this is done, a new portion should not be given out.

3. The portion assigned for every new lesson should be read over to the class, and explained, if necessary, by familiar remarks and illustrations; and care should be taken that every pupil know, before he is sent to his seat, what he is expected to do at the next recitation, and *how* it is to be done. A little pains taken in this way will be amply rewarded by the spirit and pleasure with which the lesson will be studied, and the rapid progress that will be made.

4. All rules and definitions, together with the more important parts, should be accurately committed to memory, and the whole *wrought* into the *understanding* as well as the memory of the pupil, by questions and familiar illustrations adapted to his capacity till he has completely mastered it. To aid in this, copious *Exercises* have been introduced throughout, in which the class should be drilled till every thing is easy and familiar. In this way a class of ordinary capacity, even of very young pupils, may be carried through to § 39 in the space of four or five weeks; and of those more advanced, in two or three.

5. The acquisitions made in every new lesson should be rivetted and secured by repeated *revisals*. It takes up but a few minutes, and is attended with very great advantage to begin every new lesson, or every other one with a rapid review of the whole from the beginning, or from such part as the teacher may direct.

6. Having in this way advanced to § 39, the pupil is prepared to commence Etymological parsing, for which directions are given in that Section. It is necessary he should be expert in this exercise before he enter on Syntax. To aid in this, ample directions and exercises are furnished from p. 75 to p. 85.

7. In the study of Syntax, the same course in general should be pursued as in the preceding part. At first, the rule at the top of the page only should be committed to memory, and then rendered familiar by the exercises under it. The subordinate rules and observations, with the exercises belonging to them, will be studied with more ease and advantage on a subsequent revival. When this has been done, he will be prepared for exercises in Syntactical Parsing and Promiscuous Exercises in Syntax, of which a great variety is furnished in § 85.

8. At the same time that the pupil is engaged in the exercises just mentioned, it will be a proper time to study the whole Grammar *in course*; and to take up in his progress the parts formerly omitted, which, from the acquirements now made, will be better appreciated and more easily mastered; and in doing this also, repeated revisals should not be neglected.

The study of English Grammar, prosecuted in this way, will prove both pleasing and profitable. The pupil, knowing what he is doing, and elated with success, will proceed with activity and cheerfulness; and in a comparatively short time will find himself a GOOD GRAMMARIAN.

INDEX

AND

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PART I. ORTHOGRAPHY.

	<i>Page.</i>
Of Letters,	2
Of Syllables,	2
Rules for spelling words,	2

PART II. ETYMOLOGY.

Words, and their division into Parts of Speech,	6, 7
I. ARTICLE, of,	8
Syntax of,	127
II. NOUNS, different kinds of, person of,	9
Gender of,	9
Observations on,	11
Number, rules for plural,	12
Nouns irregular in the plural,	13
Observations on,	14
Cases,	16
Nominative, construction of,	87, 88
Possessive, how formed ; observations on,	17
Construction of,	104, 105
Objective, governed by active verbs,	90
by neuter verbs,	90
by prepositions,	92
Declension of,	16
Used for adjectives, and adjectives for nouns, . .	20
Construction of, in apposition,	102
III. ADJECTIVES, definition and comparison of, Obs. on, .	18, 19
Compared irregularly,	20
Construction of,	97, 117
of comparative & superlative, 114, 115	

	<i>Page.</i>
IV. PRONOUNS , definition and division of,	21
Personal, declension of, and observations on,	22
Construction of,	99
Relative, how declined and applied,	23
Construction of,	100
Interrogative, how applied,	25
Adjective, division of,	25
Possessive,	26
Distributive,	26
Construction of,	97
Demonstrative,	26
Construction of,	97, 98
Indefinite,	27
V. VERBS , definition and division of,	29
Concord of, with its nominative,	88, 89
with two nouns,	93, 94
with nominatives of different persons,	95
with a collective noun,	96
Transitive, definition of,	29
Used in a sense allied to the passive,	32
Inflexion of,	43
Government of,	90
Passive, definition of,	33
Inflexion of,	52
When followed by the objective,	91
Intransitive, definition and characteristic of,	29
Have no passive ; how made transitive,	31
When used actively,	90
Construction of,	91
Auxiliary, what ; observations on,	33
<i>To be</i> , inflexion of,	48
Construction of,	89, 103
Irregular, definition of ; list of,	60
Defective, definition of ; list of,	65
Impersonal, of,	65
Moods, definition of,	35
Uses of ; observations on,	35, 36
Indicative and subjunctive, construction of,	111
Infinitive, character of,	37
Construction of,	110
Tenses, definition, division, and uses of,	38

VERBS continued.

	<i>Page.</i>
Tenses, Observations on ; different forms of,	39
Construction of,	123
Number and person,	42
Exercises on active, 47 ; <i>to be</i> , 51 ; passive,	56
Participles, definition and uses of,	57
Observations on,	57
VI. ADVERBS, definition and use of,	66
Classes of: observations on,	67
Position and construction of,	116, 117, 118
VII. PREPOSITIONS, definition and use of, list of,	69
Observations and exercises on,	70
Construction of,	92, 119, 120
VIII. CONJUNCTIONS, uses of, list of,	70
Observations on,	70
Construction of,	112
IX. INTERJECTIONS, use of, list of, obs. on,	71
Construction of,	119
PARSING, etymological, definition of,	71
Specimens of,	73
Rules for, and exercises in,	75
Syntactical method of,	131
Specimen of,	133

PART III. SYNTAX.

SYNTAX, general principles of, parts of,	86, 87
Rules of,	from 88 to 130
Miscellaneous obs. on certain phrases,	145
Improper expressions, a list of,	149
PUNCTUATION, rules for, &c.	151
Abbreviations,	157
Paragraphs and capitals,	158
Rhetorical divisions of a discourse,	159
Different kinds of composition,	160

PART IV. PROSODY.

PROSODY, division of,	163
Elocution,	163
Versification,	163
Figures of speech,	175
Poetic license,	176
HINTS for correct and elegant writing,	180
COMPOSITION, 183. Appendix,	189

ORDER OF THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

	<i>Page.</i>
RULE I. A verb must agree with its nominative,	88
Special rules under Rule I.	89
II. A trans. verb governs the objective case,	90
Special rules under Rule II.	91
III. Prepositions govern the objective case,	92
IV. Two or more nouns sing. in connexion,	93
V. ————— taken separately,	94
VI. A verb with nominatives of different persons,	95
VII. A verb with a collective noun,	96
VIII. Adjectives of number, the pron. <i>this</i> and <i>that</i> ,	97
IX. When two persons or things are contrasted, &c.	98
X. Pronouns agree with the nouns, &c.	99
XI. The relative agrees with its antecedent,	100
Special rules and observations under Rule XI.	101
XII. Substantives signifying the same thing, &c.	102
XIII. A verb may have the same case after it as before,	103
XIV. The possessive case,	104
XV. When the present participle is used as a noun,	107
XVI. The present participle with an article before it,	108
XVII. The perfect participle is used after <i>have</i> and <i>be</i> ,	109
XVIII. One verb governs another in the infinitive,	110
XIX. The subjunctive mood,	111
XX. Conjunctions couple the same moods and tenses, &c.	112
XXI. Some conjunctions have corresponding conjunct.	113
XXII. Comparative degree and the pronoun <i>other</i> ,	114
XXIII. Double comparatives and superlatives,	115
XXIV. Adverbs modify verbs, &c.	116
XXV. Adverbs are for the most part placed, &c.	117
XXVI. Two negatives in the same sentence,	118
XXVII. Prepositions before names of places,	119
XXVIII. Certain words and phrases must be followed, &c.	120
XXIX. In the use of verbs, &c. ; the order of time, &c.	123
XXX. When a member of a sentence refers to two different clauses, it should be, &c.	125
XXXI. Case absolute,	126
XXXII. The article <i>A</i> , &c.	127
XXXIII. An ellipsis is admissible when, &c.	129
XXXIV. An ellipsis is not allowable when, &c.	130
Miscellaneous observations,	145

GRAMMAR.

GRAMMAR is both a SCIENCE and an ART.

As a SCIENCE, it investigates the principles of language in general. When thus used, it is denominated GENERAL or UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR; and sometimes COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR.

As an ART, it teaches the right method of applying these principles to a particular language, so as thereby to express our thoughts in a correct and proper manner, according to established usage

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and writing the English Language with propriety.

It is divided into four parts; namely, *Orthography*, *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Prosody*.

PART FIRST.

§ 1. ORTHOGRAPHY.

ORTHOGRAPHY teaches the nature and powers of Letters, and the correct method of spelling words.

A LETTER is a character representing a particular sound of the human voice.

There are *Twenty-six* letters in the English Alphabet.

Letters are either Vowels or Consonants.

A Vowel is a letter which represents a simple *inarticulate* sound ; and in a word or syllable may be sounded alone. They are, *a, e, i, o, u*, and *w* and *y*, not beginning a syllable.

A Consonant is a letter which represents an *articulate* sound ; and in a word or syllable is never sounded alone, but always in connexion with a vowel. They are, *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z*, and *w* and *y* beginning a syllable.

A Diphthong is the union of two vowels in one sound. They are of two kinds, proper and improper.

A Proper Diphthong is one in which both the vowels are sounded, as *ou* in *out* ; *oi* in *oil* ; *ow* in *cow*.

An Improper Diphthong or digraph is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded, as *ou* in *court*, *oa* in *boat*.

A Triphthong is the union of three vowels in one sound as *eau* in *beauty*.

The powers of letters.

In analyzing words into their elementary sounds, it is necessary to distinguish between the *name* of a letter and its *power*.

The *name* of a letter is that by which it is usually called ; as *A, bē, sē, dē*, &c.

The *power* of a letter is the effect which it has, either by itself or combined with other letters, in forming a word or syllable.

NOTE. All the vowels have each several powers.—Several letters have the same power,—and certain powers or elements of words are represented by a combination of two letters.

The elementary powers or sounds in the English language are about *forty*, and are divided into *Vocals*, *Subvocals*, and *Aspirates*.

VOCALS are inarticulate sounds produced by the organs of voice,* with the mouth more or less open, and with no, or but slight change of position in the organs of speech.

* The *Organs of voice* are those parts (called by physiologists the Larynx and its appendages) which are employed in the production of simple vocal sounds.

The *Organs of speech* are those parts employed to articulate or modify whispering or vocal sounds. These are the tongue, lips, teeth, and palate.

SUBVOCALS are sounds produced by the organs of voice, articulated or modified by certain changes in the position of the organs of speech.

ASPIRATES are mere whispering sounds without vocality, but which still have an audible effect in the enunciation of words. They are all articulate, except *h*.

The elementary powers of letters cannot be exhibited to the eye, but must be learned from the living voice.

The NAME of a vowel is always one of its powers (except *w* and *y*,) and if from the name of a consonant we take away the vowel sound, what remains is generally the power of that consonant, except *w* and *y*.

A full view of the elementary powers of letters in the formation of words is exhibited in the following table. In the words annexed as examples, the letter whose power is indicated is printed in *Italic*. By pronouncing the word distinctly, and then leaving out all but the power of the *Italic* letter, and uttering that alone, we have the power of that letter.

TABLE of Elementary Sounds in the English Language.

VOCALS.		SUBVOCALS.		ASPIRATES.	
A.	<i>ale, able.</i>	B.	<i>bat, orb.</i>	F.	<i>fix.</i>
A.	<i>art.</i>	D.	<i>do, did.</i>	H.	<i>hat.</i>
A.	<i>all.</i>	G.	<i>gone, dog.</i>	K.	<i>keep, book.</i>
A.	<i>at.</i>	J.	<i>judge.</i>	P.	<i>pen, top.</i>
E.	<i>me.</i>	L.	<i>lie.</i>	S.	<i>sun.</i>
E.	<i>met, egg.</i>	M.	<i>man.</i>	T.	<i>top, bat.</i>
I.	<i>ire.</i>	N.	<i>no.</i>	Th.	<i>faith.</i>
I.	<i>in.</i>	NG.	<i>ring.</i>	Sh.	<i>show.</i>
O.	<i>old.</i>	R.*	<i>rope, far.</i>	Ch.	<i>chide.</i>
O.	<i>move, ooze.</i>	Th.	<i>this.</i>	Wh.	<i>when.</i>
O.	<i>odd.</i>	V.	<i>van.</i>		
U.	<i>tune, use.</i>	W.	<i>we.</i>		
U.	<i>up.</i>	Y.	<i>yes.</i>		
U.	<i>full.</i>	Z.	<i>zinc.</i>		
Ou.	<i>thou.</i>	Z.	<i>azure.</i>		

* R before a vowel has a hard or trilling sound ; as : *rat*.
rough :—After a vowel, a soft and liquid sound, as : *arm, far,*

Certain letters in the English Alphabet have the same power as others in the above table, and may therefore be called *Equivalents*. Equivalents of vowels and diphthongs are numerous.

Of the Subvocals and Aspirates eight pairs are *Correlatives*. In sounding the first of any of these pairs, the organs of voice and speech are in the same position as in sounding its fellow, but the first, or subvocal, has vocality; the second, or aspirate, has not.

TABLE of *Equivalents and Correlatives*.

EQUIVALENTS.		CORRELATIVES.	
		<i>Subvocals.</i>	<i>Aspirates.</i>
W	= u cow, mew.	V. vow.	F. fame.
Y	= i tyrant, system.	G. gone.	K. keep.
C hard	= k cat.	B. bat.	P. pen.
Q	= k liquor.	Z. zinc.	S. sin.
C soft	= s cent.	D. do.	T. top.
G soft	= j gin.	Th. this.	Th. thick.
X	= ks fix.	Z. azure.	Sh. show.
		J. judge.	Ch. chide.

SYLLABLES.

A *Syllable* is a distinct sound forming the whole of a word, as : *far*; or so much of it as can be sounded at once, as : *far in farmer*.

A word contains as many syllables as it has distinct vocal sounds; as : *gram-ma-ri-an*.

A *Monosyllable* is a word of one syllable; as : *fox*.

A *Dissyllable* is a word of two syllables; as : *farmer*.

A *Trisyllable* is a word of three syllables; as : *piety*.

A *Polysyllable* is a word of many syllables.

§ 2. SPELLING.

SPELLING is the art of expressing a word by its proper letters, and rightly dividing it into syllables.

The Orthography of the English language is so anomalous, and in many cases arbitrary, that proficiency in it can be acquired only by practice and the use of the Spelling book or Dictionary.—The following rules are of a general character, though even to these there may be a few exceptions.

RULES FOR SPELLING WORDS.

RULE I. Monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded by a short vowel, double that consonant before an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *rob*, *robber*; *admit*, *admittance*, *admitted*. Except *x* and *k*, which are never doubled.

But when a diphthong precedes, or the accent is *not* on the last syllable, the consonant is not doubled; as, *boil*, *boiling*, *boiler*; *visit*, *visited*.

RULE II. Words ending with *ll* generally drop one *l* before the terminations *ness*, *less*, *ly*, and *full*; as, *fulness*, *skillless*, *fully*, *skilful*.

RULE III. Words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* before an additional letter or syllable; as, *spy*, *spies*; *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*; *carry*, *carrier*, *carried*; *fancy*, *fanciful*.

EXCEPTION I. But *y* is not changed before *ing*; as, *deny*, *denying*.

EXCEPTION II. Words ending in *y* preceded by a vowel, retain the *y* unchanged; as, *boy*, *boys*, *boyish*, *boyhood*.

EXCEPTIONS. Lay, pay, say, make *laid*, *paid*, *said*.

Other rules for spelling are encumbered with so many exceptions as to render them nearly useless. They are therefore omitted.

PART SECOND.

§ 3. ETYMOLOGY.

ETYMOLOGY treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivations.

WORDS are certain articulate sounds used by common consent as signs of our ideas.

1. Words, in respect of their *Formation*, are either *Primitive* or *Derivative*, *Simple* or *Compound*.

A *Primitive* word is one that is not derived from any other word in the language ; as, *boy, just, father*.

A *Derivative* word is one that is derived from some other word ; as, *boyish, justice, fatherly*.

A *Simple* word is one that is not combined with any other word ; as, *man, house, city*.

A *Compound* word is one that is made up of two or more simple words ; as, *manhood, horseman*.

2. Words, in respect of *Form*, are either *Declinable* or *Indeclinable*.

A *Declinable* word is one which undergoes certain changes of *form* or *termination*, to express the different relations of gender, number, case, person, &c. usually termed in Grammar **ACCIDENTS** ; as, *man, men ; love, loves, loved*.

An *Indeclinable* word is one which undergoes no change of form ; as, *good, some, perhaps*.

3. In respect of *Signification* and *Use*, words are divided into different classes, called

PARTS OF SPEECH.

The Parts of Speech in the English language are nine, viz. The *Article, Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Interjection* and *Conjunction*.

Of these the *Noun, Pronoun, and Verb* are declined, the rest are indeclinable.

QUESTIONS.*

What is English Grammar? Into how many parts is it divided? Mention them. What is Orthography? What is a letter? How many letters are there in English? How are they divided? What is a vowel?—a consonant? Name the vowels. When are w and y vowels? When consonants? What is a diphthong?—a proper diphthong?—an improper diphthong?—a triphthong? What is a Syllable? What is a word of one Syllable termed?—of two?—of three?—of four or more?

(§ 2.) *What is spelling? Repeat the rules.*

(§ 3.) *What does Etymology treat of? What are words? How may words be classed in respect of their Formation? What is a primitive word?—a derivative word?—a simple word?—a compound word? How may words be classed in respect of Form? What is a declinable word?—an indeclinable word? How many PARTS OF SPEECH are there in English? Name them. Which of these are declinable? Which are indeclinable?*

* The list of questions subjoined at intervals is not intended for the use, much less for the *direction*, of the teacher, who, if competent, will always put such questions to the pupil as will enable him to ascertain whether he understands what he has studied, or to draw his attention to any particular point which he may wish to illustrate at greater length. The principal design of their insertion is to exercise the judgment of the pupil in his private studies in finding appropriate answers,—to enable him the better to prepare his lessons by suggesting such questions as are likely to be asked,—and to furnish a test whether he is sufficiently prepared for recitation, which he cannot be unless he can furnish a correct and prompt answer to the questions proposed. They may also prove useful in schools conducted on the monitorial plan as a guide to the Monitor. That the correct answer may be more readily found, the sections (§) to which the questions refer are marked; those which refer to the text or large print, are printed in *Italics*; and those which refer to the notes and observations, in the ordinary Roman letter.

§ 4. I. OF THE ARTICLES.

AN ARTICLE is a word put before a noun, to show the extent of its meaning; as, *a man, the man*.

There are two Articles, A or AN, and THE.

A or AN is called the *Indefinite* Article, because it does not point out a particular person or thing; as, *A king*; that is, *any king*.

THE is called the *Definite* Article, because it refers to a particular person or thing; as, *The king*; i. e. *some particular king*.

A noun without an Article to limit it is taken in its widest sense; as, *Man is mortal*, i. e. *All mankind*:—Or in an indefinite sense; as, 'There are men destitute of all shame, i. e. *some men*. § 81.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. A is used before a Consonant; as, *a book*.

An is used before a Vowel or silent *h*; as, *an age an hour*. But

A and not *An* is used before *u* long, and the diphthong *eu*, because these letters have, combined with their sound, the power of initial *y*; thus, *a unit, a use, a eulogy*. On the other hand, *An* is used before words beginning with *h* sounded, when the accent is on the second syllable; as, *an heroic action, an historical account*; because the *h* in such words is but slightly sounded.

EXERCISES ON THE ARTICLES.

Prefix the *Indefinite* article to the words, river, hope, army, hermit, infant, uncle, humour, usurper, hostler, wish, youth, umbrage, oyster, herb, thought, honour, elephant, husband.

Correct what follows, and give a reason for the change. A inkstand, an handful, a article, a humble man, an ewe, a anchor, an useful book, an history, an humorous tale, an hedge, an union.

§ 5. OF NOUNS.

A *NOUN* is the name of a thing ; as, *John, London, book*. Nouns are of two kinds, *Proper* and *Common*.

A *Proper Noun* is the name applied to an individual only ; as *Albany, Washington, the Hudson*.

A *Common Noun* is a name applied to all things of the same sort ; as, *man, chair, table, book*.

REMARK.—Proper nouns distinguish *individuals* of the same class from each other.—Common nouns distinguish *sorts* or *classes*, and are equally applicable to all things of the same class.

OBS. 1. Proper nouns denoting persons usually become common by having an article prefixed; as, “He is *the Cicero* of his age.”

OBS. 2. Common nouns become Proper when personified, and also when used as proper names; as, Hail *Liberty!* The *Park*.

OBS. 3. Under Common nouns are usually ranked,

1st. *Collective nouns*, or *nouns of multitude*, which signify many in the singular number; as, *army, people*.

2d. *Abstract nouns*, or names of qualities; as, *piety, wickedness*.

3d. *Verbal nouns*, or the names of actions, or states of being ; as, *reading, writing, sleeping*. § 30, 7.

To Nouns belong *Person, Gender, Number, and Case*.

§ 6. OF PERSON.

PERSON, in grammar, is the relation of a noun or pronoun to what is said in discourse. There are three persons, the *first, second, and third*.

The *First* person denotes the speaker or writer ; as, “I *Paul* have written it.”

The *Second* denotes the person addressed ; as, “Thou *God* seest me.”

The *Third* denotes the person or thing spoken of ; as, “*Truth* is mighty.” See Appendix, III. 2. 1st.

§ 7. OF GENDER.

GENDER is the distinction of nouns with regard to Sex. There are three genders, the *Masculine*, *Feminine* and *Neuter*. App. III. 2. 2d.

The *Masculine* Gender denotes the *male* sex ; as, *A man, a boy*.

The *Feminine* Gender denotes the *female* sex ; as, *A woman, a girl*.

The *Neuter* Gender denotes whatever is *without* sex ; as, *Milk*.

There are three ways of distinguishing the sex.

1. By different words ; as,

<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>	<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>
Bachelor	maid	Horse	mare
Beau	belle	Husband	wife
Boy	girl	King	queen
Brother	sister	Lord	lady
Buck	doe	Man	woman
Bull	cow	Master	mistress
Drake	duck	Nephew	niece
Earl	countess ¹	Ram, buck	ewe
Father	mother	Son	daughter
Friar	nun	Stag	hind
Gander	goose	Uncle	aunt
Hart	roe	Wizzard	witch

2. By a difference of Termination ; as,

<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>	<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>
Abbot	abbess	Bridegroom	bride
Actor	actress	Benefactor	benefactress
Administrator	administratrix	Count	countess
Adulterer	adulteress	Deacon	deaconess
Ambassador	ambadress	Duke	dutchess
Arbiter	arbitress	Elector	electress
Author (often)	authoress	Emperor	empress
Baron	baroness	Enchanter	enchantress

<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>	<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>
Executor	executrix	Prince	princess
Governor	governess	Prior	prioress
Heir	heiress	Prophet	prophetess
Hero	heroine	Protector	protectress
Hunter	huntress	Shepherd	shepherdess
Host	hostess	Songster	songstress
Jew	jewess	Sorcerer	sorceress
Landgrave	landgravine	Sultan	{ sultana, or sul- taness
Lion	lioness	Tiger	tigress
Marquis	marchioness	Traitor	traitress
Mayor	mayoress	Tutor	tutoress
Patron	patroness	Viscount	viscountess
Peer	peeress	Votary	votaress
Poet	poetess	Widower	widow
Priest	pricstess		

3. By prefixing another word ; as,

A <i>cock</i> sparrow.	A <i>hen</i> sparrow
A <i>he</i> goat.	A <i>she</i> goat.
A <i>man</i> servant.	A <i>maid</i> servant.
A <i>male</i> child.	A <i>female</i> child.
<i>Male</i> descendants.	<i>Female</i> descendants.

OBSERVATIONS ON GENDER.

1. Some nouns are either *masculine* or *feminine* ; such as, *parent*, *child*, *cousin*, *infant*, *servant*, *neighbor*. Such are sometimes said to be of the *common gender*.

2. Some nouns naturally neuter are converted by a figure of speech into the masculine or feminine ; as when we say of the sun, *He* is setting ;—of the moon, *She* is eclipsed ; and of a ship, *She* sails.

3. In speaking of animals whose sex is not known to us, or not regarded, we assign the masculine gender to those distinguished for boldness, fidelity, generosity, size, strength, &c., as the dog, the horse, the elephant. Thus we say, “The dog is remarkably various in *his* species.” On the other hand, we assign the feminine gender to animals characterized by weakness and timidity ; as, the hare, the cat, &c., thus, “The cat, as *she* beholds the light, draws the ball of *her* eye small and long.”

4. In speaking of animals, particularly those of inferior size, we fre-

quently consider them devoid of sex. Thus, of an infant, we say "*It is a lovely creature;*"—of a cat, "*It is cruel to its enemy.*"

5. When the male and female are expressed by distinct terms; as, *shepherd, shepherdess*, the masculine term has also a general meaning, expressing both male and female, and is always to be used when the office, occupation, profession, &c., and not the sex of the individual, is chiefly to be expressed. The feminine term is used only when the discrimination of sex is indispensably necessary. Thus, when it is said "the Poets of this country are distinguished by correctness of taste," the term "Poet" clearly includes both *male* and *female* writers of poetry.

§ 8. OF NUMBER.

NUMBER is that property of a noun by which it expresses one, or more than one. Nouns have *two* numbers, the *Singular* and the *Plural*. The Singular denotes *one*; the Plural *more than one*.

GENERAL RULE.

The plural is commonly formed by adding *s* to the singular, as *book, books*.

SPECIAL RULES.

1. Nouns in *s, sh, ch* soft, *x, or o*, form the plural by adding *es*; as, *Miss, Misses; brush, brushes; match, matches; fox, foxes; hero, heroes*.

Exc. Nouns in *eo* and *io*, with *junto, canto, tyro, grotto, portico, solo, halo, quarto*, have *s* only; as, *cameo, cameos; folio, folios; junto, juntos, &c.* Also nouns in *ch* sounding *k*; as, *monarch, monarchs*.

2. Nouns in *y* after a consonant, change *y* into *ies* in the plural; as, *lady, ladies*.

Nouns in *y* after a vowel, follow the general rule; as *day, days*. § 2. R. III.

3. Nouns in *f* or *fe*, change *f* or *fe* into *ves* in the plural; as, *loaf, loaves; life, lives*.

Exc. Dwarf, scarf, wharf; brief, chief, grief; kerchief, handkerchief,

mischief; gulf, turf, surf;—fife, strife;—proof, hoof, roof, reproof, follow the general rule. Also nouns in *ff* have their plural in *s*; as, *muff*, *muffs*; except *staff*, which has sometimes *staves*; so *wharf*, *wharves*.

EXERCISES ON NUMBER.

Give the plural, and the rule for forming it, of—Fox, book, leaf, candle, hat, loaf, wish, fish, sex, box, coach, inch, sky, bounty, army, duty, knife, echo, loss, cargo, wife, story, church, table, glass, study, calf, branch, street, potato, peach, sheaf, booby, rock, stone, house, glory, hope, flower, city, difficulty, distress, wolf.

Day, bay, relay, chimney, journey, valley, needle, enemy; an army, a vale, an ant, a valley, the hill, the sea, a key, a toy, monarch, tyro, grotto, nuncio, punctilio, embryo, gulf, handkerchief, hoof, staff, muff, cliff, whiff, cuff, ruff.

Of what number is—Book, trees, plant, shrub, globes, hills, river, scenes, stars, planets, toys, home, fancy, mosses, glass, state, foxes, house, prints, spoon, bears, lilies, roses, churches, glove, silk, skies, berries, peach?

§ 9. NOUNS IRREGULAR IN THE PLURAL.

Some nouns are irregular in the formation of their plural; such as,

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Man	men	Tooth	teeth
Woman	women	Goose	geese
Child	children	Mouse	mice
Foot	feet	Louse	lice
Ox	oxen	Penny	pence

But *penny*, meaning the coin, has the plural *pennies*.

NOTE. Words compounded of *man*, *woman*, &c. form the plural like the simple word; as *Footman*, *footmen*; *Boatman*, *boatmen*; *Washerwoman*, *washerwomen*, &c.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Brother (one of the same family)	brothers
Brother (one of the same society)	brethren

Sow or swine	sows or swine
Die (for gaming)	dice
Die (for coining)	dies
Aid-de-camp	aids-de-camp
Court-martial	courts-martial
Cousin-german	cousins-german
Father-in-law, &c.	fathers-in-law, &c.

Words from foreign languages sometimes retain their original plural. As a general rule, nouns in *um* or *on* have *a* in the plural; but those in *is* in the singular, change it into *es* in the plural. The following are the most common :

Animalculum	animalecula	Genius (an aerial spirit)	} genii
Antithesis	antitheses		
Apex	apices	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Appendix	{ appendixes	Ignis fatuus	ignes fatui
	{ appendices	Index (a pointer)	indexes
Arcanum	arcana	Index (in algebra)	indices
Automaton	automata	Lamina	laminæ
Axis	axes	Magus	magi
Basis	bases	Memorandum	memoranda
Calx	calces	Metamorphosis	metamorphoses
Cherub	{ cherubim	Monsieur	messieurs
	{ cherubs	Phenomenon	phenomena
Crisis	crises	Radius	radii
Criterion	criteria	Stamen	stamina
Datum	data	Seraph	{ seraphs
Desideratum	desiderata		{ seraphim
Effluvium	effluvia	Stimulus	stimuli
Ellipsis	ellipses	Stratum	strata
Emphasis	emphases	Vertex	vertices
Encomium	{ encomia	Vortex	vortices
	{ encomiums	Virtuoso	virtuosi
Erratum	errata	Mr (master)	Messrs (messieurs)
Focus	foci		
Genus	genera		

§ 10. OBSERVATIONS ON NUMBER.

1. Proper names have the plural, only when they refer to a race or family; as, the *Stewarts*, the *Campbells*; or to several persons of the

same name ; as, the twelve *Cæsars*, the two *Mr. Bells*, the two *Miss Browns*. But without the numeral, or in addressing letters in which *both* or *all* are equally concerned, and also when the names are *different*, we pluralize the title (Mr. or Miss) ; as, *Misses Brown*, *Messrs Webster & Skinner*. See § 60, Rem. 1.

2. Names of *metals*, *virtues*, *vices*, and things that are weighed or measured, are for the most part confined to the singular number ; as *gold*, *meekness*, *temperance*, *bread*, *beer*, *beef*, &c. Except when different sorts are meant ; as, *wines*, *teas*, &c.

3. Some nouns are used in the plural only ; such as *annals*, *antipodes*, *literati*, *credenda*, *minutiæ*, *banditti*, *uata* ; and things consisting of two parts, as *bellows*, *scissors*, *pliers*, *tongs*, *lungs*, &c. ; or of more than two, as *ashes*, *embers*, *entrails*, *clothes*, &c.

NOTE. For the singular of *literati*, the expression, "*one of the literati*," is used ; and *bandit* is sometimes used as the singular of *banditti*.

4. Some nouns are alike in both numbers ; as *hose*, *deer*, *sheep*, *swine*, *trout*, *salmon*, *tench* ; *apparatus*, *hiatus*, *series*, *species* ; *brace*, *dozen*, *head*, *couple*, *score*, *pair*, *hundred*, *thousand*, &c.

NOTE. *Brace*, *dozen*, &c. have sometimes a plural form ; as, He bought partridges in *braces*, and books in *scores* and *dozens*. *Cannon*, *shot*, and *sail*, are used in a plural sense. *Foot*, *horse*, *infantry*, and sometimes *cavalry*, meaning bodies of foot, &c. are construed with a plural verb. The singular of *sheep*, *deer*, &c. is distinguished by the article *a* ; as, *a sheep*, *a deer*.

5. Some words are plural in *form*, but in *construction* either singular or plural ; such as *amends*, *means*, *news*, *riches*, *pains* ; and the names of certain sciences, as *mathematics*, *metaphysics*, *ethics*, *politics*, *optics*, &c.

NOTE. *Means*, when it points out the instrumentality of one agent, is construed as singular ;—of more than one, as plural. *Mean*, in the singular form, is commonly used to signify a middle between two extremes. *News* is now generally construed in the singular number. *Alms* (*almesse*, Fr.) is properly singular, though ending in *s*, and is perhaps always so used. *Riches* (*richesse*, Fr.) of similar derivation, is singular or plural. *Thanks* is considered a plural noun, though used to denote one expression of gratitude. *Thank* occurs in the New Testament : "What thank have ye?"

EXERCISES ON IRREGULAR NOUNS AND OBSERVATIONS, &c.

Give the plural of—Man, foot, penny, mouse, ox, child

father-in-law, son-in-law, brother ; erratum, radius, lamina, automaton, phenomenon, stratum, axis, ellipsis, stamen, index, cherub, seraph.

Of what number is—Dice, arcana, fishermen, geese, dormice, alms, riches, thanks, snuffers, tongs, teeth, woman, child, court-martial, apparatus, minutæ, genii, geniuses, indices, indexes, mathematics, Matthew, James, John ?

§ 11. OF THE CASES OF NOUNS.

CASE is the state or condition of a noun with respect to the other words in a sentence.

Nouns have three cases, viz. the *Nominative*, *Possessive*, and *Objective*.

The *Nominative* case expresses that of which something is said or declared ; as, the *sun* shines.

The *Possessive* denotes that to which something belongs ; as, the *lady's* fan.

The *Objective* denotes the object of some action or relation ; as, James assists *Thomas* ; they live in *Albany*.

The nominative and objective are alike.

The possessive singular is formed by adding an apostrophe and *s* to the nominative ; as, *John's*.

When the plural ends in *s*, the possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe only.

NOUNS ARE THUS DECLINED :

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Lady	Ladies	John	—
<i>Poss.</i>	Lady's	Ladies'	John's	—
<i>Obj.</i>	Lady	Ladies	John	—

Proper names generally want the plural. See § 10, 1.

§ 12. OBSERVATIONS ON THE POSSESSIVE.

1. The apostrophe and *s* ('*s*) is an abbreviation for *is*, the termination of the old English genitive; thus, "the *king's* crown," was anciently written, "the *kingis* crown."

2. When the nominative singular ends in *ss*, or in letters of similar sound, the *s* after the apostrophe is sometimes omitted, in order to avoid too close a succession of hissing sounds; as, "for goodness' sake;" "for conscience' sake." This, however, is seldom if ever done unless the word following the possessive begins with *s*; thus we do not say, "the prince' feather," but, "the prince's feather."

3. The relation expressed by the *possessive* case, is in general the same with that expressed by the word *of*; thus, "the rage of the tyrant," "the death of the prince," are equivalent to "the tyrant's rage," "the prince's death." Hence when the use of the possessive would appear stiff, it is better to use the preposition *of*, or some equivalent expression instead of it; as, "the satellites of Jupiter," "the length of the day," "the garden wall," for "Jupiter's satellites," "the day's length," "the garden's wall." Sometimes, however, the idea expressed by the preposition *of*, with the objective, is different from that expressed by the possessive; thus, "a picture of the king," and "the king's picture," express different ideas: the first means "a *portrait* of the king;" the last, "a picture *belonging* to the king."

QUESTIONS.

What is a noun or substantive? How many kinds of nouns are there? What is a proper noun?—a common noun? How do proper nouns become common? What are collective nouns?—abstract nouns?—diminutive nouns? How are nouns varied?

(§ 6.) *What is gender? How many genders are there? What does the masculine gender denote?—the feminine?—the neuter? Mention the different ways of distinguishing the sex.*

(§ 7.) *What is the common gender? How do neuter nouns become masculine or feminine? Give an instance. When the sex of animals is not known, what gender do we assign to those distinguished for boldness, fidelity, strength, &c.?—to those characterized by weakness, timidity, and the like?—to animals of inferior size?*

(§ 8.) *What is meant by number? How many numbers are there? What does the singular denote?—the plural? How is the plural commonly formed? When is the plural formed by adding *es*? How do nouns in *y* after a consonant, form the plural?—after a vowel?—nouns in *f* or *fe*?*

(§ 9.) Mention some nouns that are irregular in the formation of the plural. How do words from foreign languages, in *um*, commonly form the plural?—in *on*?—in *is*?

(§ 10.) When have proper names the plural? What sort of nouns are for the most part used in the singular? Mention some nouns used in the plural only;—some alike in both numbers. Mention some nouns plural in form, but singular or plural in construction. When is *means* construed with a singular verb?—when with a plural verb?

(§ 11.) *What is case? How many cases have nouns? name them. What does the nominative denote?—the possessive?—the objective? Which two cases are alike? How is the possessive singular usually formed?—the possessive plural? Decline lady, John, &c.*

(§ 12.) For what is 's an abbreviation? When does the possessive singular omit the *s* after the apostrophe? What form of expression is equivalent to the possessive?

EXERCISES ON GENDER, NUMBER AND CASE.*

Father, brothers, mother's, boys, book, loaf, arms, wife, hats, sisters', bride's, bottles, brush, goose, eagles' wings, echo, ox's horn, mouse, kings, queens, bread, child's toy, grass, tooth, tongs, candle, chair, Jane's boots, Robert's shoe, horse, bridle.

§ 13. III. OF THE ADJECTIVE.

1. An ADJECTIVE is a word added to a noun to express its quality, or to limit its signification; as, a *good* boy; a *square* box; *ten* dollars.

2. Adjectives have three degrees of comparison; namely, the *Positive*, *Comparative*, and *Superlative*

The *Positive* expresses a quality *simply*: the *Comparative* asserts

* *Note.* In using the above exercises, it will save much time, which is very important in a large school, if the pupil be taught to express all that is necessary in parsing these or other words, thus: *Father*, a *noun*, *masculine*, *singular*, the *nominative*; *Mother's*, a *noun*, *feminine*, *singular*, the *possessive*. It will also be a profitable exercise for him to assign a reason for every part of his description, thus: *Father*, a *noun*, because the *name* of an object; *masculine*, because it denotes the *male sex*; *singular*, because it denotes but *one*; plural, *fathers*—Rule, 'The plural is commonly formed by adding *s* to the singular.'

it in a *higher* or *lower* degree in one object than in another: And the *Superlative*, in the highest or lowest degree compared with several; thus, Gold is *heavier* than silver; It is the *most precious* of the metals.

3. In adjectives of *one* syllable, the Comparative is formed by adding *-er* to the positive; and the Superlative by adding *-est*; as, *sweet, sweeter, sweetest*. Adjectives of *more* than one syllable are compared by prefixing *more* and *most* to the positive; as, *numerous, more numerous, most numerous*.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. Dissyllables in *le* after a mute, are generally compared by *er* and *est*: as, *able, abler, ablest*. Dissyllables in *y* change *y* into *i*, before *er* and *est*: as, *happy, happier, happiest*. But *y* with a vowel before it, is not changed; as, *gay, gayer, gayest*. § 2, Rule III.

2. Some adjectives form the superlative by adding *most* to the end of the word; as, *upper, uppermost*. So, *undermost, foremost, hindmost, utmost*.

3. When the positive ends in a simple consonant, preceded by a single vowel, the consonant is doubled before *er* and *est*; as *hot, hotter, hottest*. § 2, Rule IV.

4. Some adjectives do not admit of comparison, viz:

1. Such as denote *number*; as, *one, two;—third, fourth*.

2. ————— *figure or shape*; as, *circular, square*.

3. ————— *posture or position*; as, *perpendicular, horizontal*.

4. Those of an absolute or superlative signification; as, *true, perfect, universal, chief, extreme, &c.*

5. Such adjectives as *superior, inferior, exterior, interior, &c.* though they involve the idea of comparison, are not to be considered as in the comparative degree, any more than such adjectives as *preferable, precious, &c.* They neither have the form of the comparative, nor are they construed with *than* after them, as comparatives in English uniformly are. See Syntax, § 71, Rule XXII.

6. The superlative degree implying comparison, is usually preceded by the definite article. When preceded by the indefinite article, it does not imply comparison, but *eminence*; as, "he is a most distinguished man." The same thing is expressed by prefixing the adverb *very, exceedingly*, and the like; which is called the *superlative of eminence*.

7. Without implying comparison, the signification of the positive is

sometimes lessened by the termination *ish*; as, *white*, *whitish*: *black*, *blackish*. These may properly be called *diminutive adjectives*. The adverb *rather*, expresses a small degree of the quality; as, *rather little*.

8. Nouns become adjectives when they are used to express the quality of other nouns; as, *gold ring*, *silver cup*, *sea water*.

9. On the contrary, adjectives are often used as nouns; as, "God rewards the *good*, and punishes the *bad*." "The *virtuous* are the most happy." Adjectives thus used are usually preceded by the definite article; and when applied to persons, are considered plural. § 40, Rule vii.

10. Adjectives which express number, are called *Numeral adjectives*. They are of two kinds, *Cardinal* and *Ordinal*. The *cardinal* answer the question, "*how many?*" and are *one, two, three, four, five, six, &c.* The *ordinal* answer the question, "*which of the number?*" They are *first, second, third, fourth, &c.*

§ 14. ADJECTIVES COMPARED IRREGULARLY.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good	better	best
Bad, evil or ill	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Much or many	more	most
Late	later	latest or last
Near	nearer	nearest or next
Far	farther	farthest
Fore	former	foremost or first
Old	older or elder	oldest or eldest

Obs. *Much* is applied to things weighed or measured; *many*, to those that are numbered. *Elder* and *eldest*, to persons only; *older* and *oldest*, either to persons or things.

QUESTIONS.

(§ 13 & 14.) *What is an adjective? How many degrees of comparison are there?—name them. What does the positive express?—the comparative?—the superlative? How are adjectives of one syllable compared?—of more than one?*

(Obs.) How are dissyllables in *le*, after a mute, compared?—dis

syllables in *y*? What superlatives are formed by adding *most* to the end of the word? What words double the final consonant before *er* and *est*? What adjectives do not admit of comparison? Of what degree are *superior*, *inferior*, *interior*, &c.? What does the superlative imply when preceded by the *definite* article?—by the *indefinite*? What is the force of the termination *ish*? What are adjectives in *ish* called? When are nouns used as adjectives? Are adjectives ever used as nouns?—give an example. Of what number are they when applied to persons? What are numeral adjectives? Name the cardinal;—the ordinal. What do the cardinal express?—the ordinal? What adjectives are compared irregularly? What is *much* applied to? *many*?—*elder* and *eldest*?—*older* and *oldest*?

EXERCISES.

Of what degree of comparison is—Sweet, kinder, warmest, prompt, firmest, bright, high, cold, nobler, broader, bravest, more pleasant, most desirable, softer.

Compare—Great, small, rough, smooth, happy, noble, gay, good, little, much, worthless, ambitious, old, young.

EXERCISES ON THE ARTICLE, NOUN AND ADJECTIVE.

A good man; a kind heart; a clear sky; the benevolent lady; the highest hill; a skilful artist; an older companion; man's chief concern; a lady's lapdog; most splendid talents; the liveliest disposition; a pleasant temper; the raging billows; temples magnificent; silent shades; excellent weather; a loftier tower; a happier disposition.

§ 15. IV. OF THE PRONOUN.

A PRONOUN is a word used instead of a noun; as *John* is a good boy; *he* is diligent in *his* studies.

Pronouns may be divided into three classes; *Personal*, *Relative*, and *Adjective*. The personal pronouns are, *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*. They are thus declined:

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL		
	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.*</i>	<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.*</i>	<i>Obj.</i>
1. <i>m. or f.</i>	I	mine	me	We	ours	us
2. <i>m. or f.</i>	Thou	thine	thee	You	yours	you
3. <i>masc.</i>	He	his	him	They	theirs	them
3. <i>fem.</i>	She	hers	her	They	theirs	them
3. <i>neut.</i>	It	its	it	They	theirs	them

OBSERVATIONS ON PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. *I* is the *first* person, and denotes the speaker *Thou* is the *second*, and denotes the person spoken to. *He, she, and it*, are of the *third* person, and denote the person or thing spoken of. So also of their plurals, *we, you, (ye), they*.

2. *Myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself*, with their plurals *ourselves, yourselves, themselves*, may be called *Compound personal pronouns*: They are used in the nominative and objective cases. In the nominative they are *emphatic*, and are added to their respective personal pronouns, or are used instead of them; as, "*I myself* did it;" "*himself* shall come." In the objective they are *reflexive*, showing that the *agent* is also the *object* of his own act; as, "*Judas* went and hanged *himself*."

3. In proclamations, charters, editorial articles, and the like, *we* is frequently applied to one person.

4. In addressing persons, *you* is commonly put both for the singular and the plural, and has always a plural verb. *Thou* is used only in addresses to the Deity, or any important object in nature; or to mark special emphasis, or, in the language of contempt. The plural form *ye* is now but seldom used.

5. The pronoun *it*, besides its use as the neuter pronoun of the third person, is also used *indefinitely* with the verb *to be* in the third person

* See § 18, I. Obs. 1.

singular, for all genders, numbers, and persons; as, *It is I, it is we, it is you, it is they*;—*It was she*, &c.

6. *Hers, its, ours, yours, theirs*, should never be written *her's, it's, our's, your's, their's*; for the final *s* is not used on account of the government of the noun understood, but because the noun is omitted. We cannot say *her's* book, but *her* book, or, that book is *hers*.

7. The personal pronouns may be parsed briefly thus; *I*, the first personal pronoun, masculine (or feminine), singular, the nominative. *His*, the third personal pronoun, masculine, singular, the possessive, &c.

QUESTIONS.

§ 15. *What is a pronoun? Name the classes into which they are divided. Name the personal pronouns. Decline them. Of what person is I?—thou?—he, she, it? What does the first person denote?—the second?—the third? To what class do myself, thyself, &c. belong? In what cases are they used? How are they applied in the nominative?—in the objective? How is you applied?—thou?—it?*

EXERCISES ON PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

I, thou, we, me, us, thine, he, him, she, hers, they, thee, them, its, theirs, you, her, ours, yours, mine, his, I, me, them, us, we.

§ 16. OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. A RELATIVE PRONOUN is a word that relates to a noun or pronoun before it, called the antecedent; as, the master *who* taught *us*.

2. The relative pronouns are *who, which, and that*. They are alike in both numbers; and *that* is alike in all cases. They are thus declined.

	<i>Sing. and Plur.</i>	<i>Sing. and Plur.</i>
Nom.	Who,	Which.
Poss.	Whose,	Whose.
Obj.	Whom,	Which.

3. *Who* is applied to persons; as, the boy *who* reads.

Obs. Also to inferior animals, and things without life, when they are represented as speaking and acting like rational beings.

4. *Which* is applied to inferior animals and things without life; as, the dog *which* barks; the book *which* was lost.

NOTE. Also to collective nouns composed of persons; as, "the court of Spain *which*;" "the company *which*:" And likewise after the name of a person used merely as a word; as, "The court of Queen Elizabeth, *which* was but another name for prudence and economy."

Which was formerly applied to persons as well as things, and is so used in the common version of the Scriptures.

5. *That* is often used as a relative, to prevent the too frequent repetition of *who* or *which*. It is applied both to persons and things. § 58, Rem. 3.

6. *What* is a compound relative, including both the relative and the antecedent; as, this is *what* I wanted, that is, the *thing which* I wanted.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE RELATIVE.

1. *Which* has for its possessive *whose*; as, A religion *whose* origin is divine. Instead of *whose*, however, the objective with *of* before it, is more commonly used; as, A religion, the origin *of which* is divine.

2. *What* and *which* are sometimes used as adjectives; that is, they agree with a substantive following them; as, "I know not by *what* fatality the adversaries of the measure are impelled;"—" *Which* things are an allegory." In this sense, *which* applies either to persons or things, and in meaning is equivalent to *this* or *these*.

3. *Whoever*, *whosoever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever* are also used as compound relatives, and are equivalent to the relative and a general or indefinite antecedent; as, "*Whosoever* committeth sin is the servant of sin;" that is, "*any one*," or "*every one who* committeth sin, &c." "*Whatsoever* things are of good report;" i. e. "*All things* (without exception) *which* are of good report." § 59. Rule m. § 63, 8.

4. *Who*, and also *which*, and *what* without a substantive following them, in responsive sentences, or in sentences similarly constructed, are properly neither relatives nor adjectives, but a kind of indefinite pronouns. Thus, when to the question "Who is the author of that poem?" it is replied, "I do not know *who* is its author," the word

"*who*" is evidently not a relative ; for if it were, then, with the antecedent supplied, the sentence would be "I do not know the person who is its author." These two sentences, however, are clearly not equivalent ; the former means "I do not know by what person it was written ;" the latter, "I have no knowledge of him, I am not acquainted with him." The first is a direct answer to the question, the last is no answer at all, but would be considered as an evasion.

§ 17. OF THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

In asking questions, *who*, *which*, and *what* are called INTERROGATIVE pronouns.

As interrogatives, *who* is applied to persons only ; *which* and *what*, either to persons or things. *What* admits of no variation.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. In the use of the interrogatives as applied to persons, the following distinction is to be observed ; namely, *Who* is used when we inquire after a person or persons wholly unknown ; as, *Who* did it ?—*Which* is used when we inquire after one or more of a number present, or already spoken of ; as, *Which* of them did it ? Do you know *which* of these men is the president ?—*What* is used when the character, or a description of a person is inquired after, and not the name, or the individual merely ; as, *What* man is that ?

2. When a defining clause is added, either *what* or *which* may be used ; as, *What*, or *which* man among you ?

3. *Whether* (now used as a conjunction only) was formerly used as an interrogative pronoun, equivalent to, *which of the two* ? Its place is now supplied by *which*.

4. In answers to questions made by these interrogatives, the same words are used as *responsives* ; as, *Who* did it ? I know not *who* did it. *Which* of them did it ? I know not *which* of them did it. See § 16, Obs. 4.

§ 18. OF ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

There are four sorts of ADJECTIVE pronouns, viz. the *Possessive*, *Distributive*, *Demonstrative*, and *Indefinite*.

1. The *Possessive* pronouns are such as relate to *possession* or *property*. They are, *My, thy, his, her, our, your, their, its, own*.

OBS. 1. The possessive pronoun is in fact only another form of the possessive case of the personal pronoun, having the same meaning but a different construction. The possessive pronoun, like the adjective, is always followed by a substantive; as, this is *my* book. The possessive case of the personal pronoun is never followed by a substantive, but refers to one previously expressed; as, this book is *mine*. The possessive case of the substantive is used both ways; as, this book is *John's*; or, this is *John's* book.

OBS. 2. *His* and *her*, when followed by a substantive, are possessive pronouns: Not followed by a substantive, *his* is the possessive case of *he*; and *her* is the objective case of *she*.

OBS. 3. *Mine* and *thine* were formerly used, before a vowel or the letter *h*, as possessives for *my* and *thy*; as, "Blot out all *mine* iniquities;" "Commune with *thine* heart."

OBS. 4. *Own* is not used as a possessive pronoun by itself, but is added to the other possessive pronouns, and to the possessive case of nouns, to render them emphatic; as, *My own* book; The boy's *own* book. The possessive pronoun with *own* following it, may stand alone, having its substantive understood; as, It is *my own*.

2. The *distributive* pronouns represent the persons or things that make up a number as taken separately. They are, *Each, every, either, neither*.

OBS. 1. *Each* denotes two things taken separately; or, every one of any number taken *singly*. *Every* denotes *more* than two things taken individually, and comprehends them all. *Either* means one of two, but not both. *Neither* means *not either*.

3. The *demonstrative* pronouns point out with precision the object to which they relate. They are, *This* and *that*, with their plurals *these* and *those*.

OBS. 1. *You*, and *former* and *latter*, may be called demonstrative pronouns, as well as *this* and *that*.

OBS. 2. *That* is sometimes a *relative*, sometimes a *demonstrative*, and sometimes a *conjunction*.

1. It is a *relative*, when it can be turned into *who* or *which*; as, The days *that* (or *which*) are past, are gone forever.

2. It is a *demonstrative*, when it is placed before a noun, or refers to one at some distance from it; as, *That* book is new; *that* is what I want.

3. It is a *conjunction* when it cannot be changed into *who* or *which*, but marks a consequence, an indication, or final end; as, He was so proud, *that* he was universally despised: He answered, *that* he never was so happy as now; Live well, *that* you may be happy.

4. The *indefinite* pronouns denote persons or things indefinitely. They are, *None, any, all, such, whole, some, both, one, other*. The two last are declined like nouns.

Among the indefinites may also be reckoned such words as *no, few, many, several*, and the like; as well as the compounds, *whoever, whatever, whichever, &c.*, and *who, which, and what*, in responsive sentences. § 16. Obs. 4.

None is used in both numbers, but it cannot be joined to a noun.

NOTE. The distributives, demonstratives, and indefinites, cannot strictly be called *pronouns*; since they never stand instead of nouns, but always agree with a noun expressed or understood: Neither can they be properly called *adjectives*, since they never express the quality of a noun. They are here classed with pronouns, in accordance with the usages of other languages, which generally assign them this place. All these, together with the possessives, in parsing, may with sufficient propriety be termed *adjectives*, being uniformly regarded as such in syntax.

QUESTIONS.

(§ 16 & 17.) *What is a relative pronoun? Name them. Decline who—which. How is who applied?—which?—that?—What does what, used as a relative, imply?*

(Obs.) *When are what and which used as adjectives? How are whoever and whosoever applied? How is who applied in asking questions? How is which applied? How was whether formerly used?*

How is it now used? When are *who*, *which*, and *what* used as responses?

(§ 18.) *How many sorts of adjective pronouns are there? Name them. Mention the possessive pronouns.* How is the possessive pronoun distinguished from the possessive case of the personal pronoun? When are *his* and *her* possessive pronouns?—when substantive or personal? How are *mine* and *thine* used?—own? *Mention the distributive pronouns.* How is *each* applied?—*every*?—*either*?—*neither*? *Mention the demonstrative pronouns.* What other words may be considered as demonstratives? When is *that* a relative?—a demonstrative?—a conjunction? Mention the indefinite pronouns. Which of them are declined like nouns? What other words may be considered as indefinites? How is *none* used?

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON NOUNS, &c.

A man, he, who, which, that, his, me, mine, thine, whose, they, hers, it, we, us, I, him, its, horse, mare, master, thou, theirs, thee, you, my, thy, our, your, their, his, her,—this, these; that, those,—each. every, other, any, none, bride, daughter, uncle, wife's, sir, girl, madam, box, dog, lad; a gay lady; sweet apples; strong bulls; fat oxen; a mountainous country.

Compare—Rich, merry, furious, covetous, large, little, good, bad, near, wretched, rigorous, delightful, sprightly, spacious, splendid, gay, imprudent, pretty.

The human mind; cold water; he, thou, she, it; woody mountains; the naked rock; youthful jollity; goodness divine; justice severe; this, thy, others, one; a peevish boy; hers, their strokes; pretty girls; his droning flight; her delicate cheeks; a man who; the sun that; a bird which; himself, themselves, itself; that house; these books.

Correct—The person *which* waited on us yesterday. The horse who rode down the man. The dog who was chained at the door. Those sort of trees. These kind of persons. The angel which appeared to Moses. The boys which learned their lessons so well. The sun who

shines so bright. Those kind of amusements. The woman which told me the story. The messenger which carried the letter. The court who sat last week. The member which spoke last. There were twenty men, each with a spear; but neither of them was fully armed.

§ 19. OF VERBS.

1. A **VERB** is a word that expresses an *action* or *state*; as, I *write*, you *sit*, he *sleeps*, they *are*.

Obs. 1. The use of the verb in simple propositions is to affirm or declare. That of which it affirms is called its *subject* or nominative.

2. Verbs are of two kinds, *Transitive* and *Intransitive*.*

3. A **TRANSITIVE VERB** expresses an act done by one person or thing to another; as, James *strikes* the table. It has two forms called the *Active* and the *Passive* voice, § 21.

* The terms *Transitive* and *Intransitive* are here preferred to the terms *Active* and *Neuter*, formerly used, as being a more accurate designation of these two classes of verbs, and removing effectually the confusion and ambiguity arising from the double use of the term *active*, to denote a class of verbs, and also a particular form of the verb; as well as its being used by some to denote transitive verbs only, and by others to denote all verbs which express action, whether transitive or intransitive. The term *active* is now used in this grammar, not to denote a class of verbs, but only that form of all verbs usually called the active voice. § 29. Still, however, should any teacher prefer to use the terms active and neuter, it can easily be done.

The following are the most common divisions of the verb that have been used by grammarians.

1. Murray divides verbs into *Active*, *Passive*, and *Neuter*. By active he means transitive verbs only, and by neuter, all verbs not transitive.

2. Mr. Kirkham, and Mr. Smith, divide verbs also into *Active*, *Passive*, and *Neuter*. Under the term *active*, they include all verbs which denote action of any kind, whether transitive or intransitive; and under the term *neuter*, those only which denote *being* simply, or an *inactive state of being*.

3. Mr. Brown divides verbs into four classes, called *Active-transitive*, *Active-intransitive*, *Passive*, and *Neuter*. If we unite the second and fourth of these, which ought never to be divided, we have the division of Murray. Unite the first and second, and we have the division of Kirkham. For further remarks on these classifications, see Appendix, III. 5.

4. An **INTRANSITIVE VERB** expresses *being*, or a *state of being*, or *action* confined to the actor; as, *I am*, *he sleeps*, *you run*.

Obs. 2. In this division, *Transitive* verbs include all those which express an act that *passes over* from the actor, to an object acted upon; as, *He loves us*. *Intransitive* verbs include all verbs not transitive, whether they express an action or not; as, *I am*, *you walk*, *they run*. See § 21, Obs. 2, 3.

5. Intransitive Verbs, from their nature, can have no distinction of voice. Their form is generally active; as, *I stand*, *I run*. A few admit also the passive form; as, “*He is come*,” “*they are gone*,”—equivalent to “*He has come*,” “*they have gone*.”

6. Transitive Verbs in the active voice, and intransitive verbs, being of the same form, can be distinguished only by their signification and construction. The following marks will enable the student to make this necessary distinction with ease and certainty.

1st. A transitive active verb requires an object after it to complete the sense; as, *The boy studies grammar*. § 48. Rem. 3. An intransitive verb requires no object after it, but the sense is complete without it; as, *He sits*, *you ride*.

2d. Every transitive active verb can be changed into the passive form; thus, “*James strikes the table*,” can be changed into “*The table is struck by James*.” But the intransitive verb cannot be so changed; thus, *I smile*, cannot be changed into *I am smiled*.

3d. In the use of the transitive verb there are always *three* things implied,—the *actor*, the *act*, and the *object* acted upon. In the use of the intransitive there are only *two*—the *subject* or thing spoken of, and the *state*, or *action* attributed to it.

7. In respect of form, verbs are divided into *Regular*, *Irregular*, and *Defective*.

8. A **REGULAR** verb is one that forms its *Imperfect*

Indicative, and its *Perfect participle* by adding *d* or *ed* to the Present; as, Present, *love*; Imperfect, *loved*; Perfect participle, *loved*.

9. An **IRREGULAR** verb is one that does not form its *Imperfect Indicative*, and *Perfect participle*, by adding *d* or *ed* to the Present; thus, Present, *write* · Imperfect, *wrote*; Perfect participle, *written*.

10. A **DEFECTIVE** verb is one that wants some of its parts. To this class belong chiefly *Auxiliary* and *Impersonal* verbs.

§ 20. AUXILIARY VERBS.

The **AUXILIARY**, or *helping verbs*, by the help of which verbs are principally inflected, are the following, which, as auxiliaries, are used only in the present and past tenses; viz.

<i>Pres.</i>	Do,	have,	shall,	will,	may,	can,	am,	must
<i>Past.</i>	Did,	had,	should,	would,	might,	could,	was,	—

And the participles (of *be*,) *being*, *been*.

Am, *do*, and *have*, are also principal verbs.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. *Let* (used by some Grammarians as an auxiliary in the imperative mood,) is properly an *active* verb, and complete. *Ought* is a defective verb, having, like *must*, only the present tense.

2. *Shall* implies duty or obligation; *will*, purpose or resolution; *may*, liberty; *can*, ability. The past tense of these verbs, *should*, *would*, *might*, *could*, are very indefinite with respect to time; being used to express duty, purpose, liberty, and ability, sometimes with regard to what is past, sometimes with regard to what is present, and sometimes with regard to what is future; thus,

Past. He *could* not do it then, for he was otherwise engaged

Present. I *would* do it with pleasure, if I *could*.

Future. If he *would* delay his journey a few days, I *might*, (*could*, *would* or *should*,) accompany him.

In these and similar examples, the auxiliaries may be considered simply

as denoting *liberty, ability, will, or duty*, without any reference to time in themselves, and that the precise time is indicated by the scope of the sentence. The same observation applies to *must* and *ought*, implying *necessity* and *obligation*.

3. *Would* is sometimes used to denote what was customary; as in the examples, "He would say;" "He would desire," &c. Thus,

Pleased with my admiration, and the fire
His speech struck from me, the old man *would* shake
His years away, and act his young encounters;
Then, having shewed his wounds, *he'd* sit (him) down.

4. *OF WILL and SHALL, WOULD and SHOULD.*

Will, in the *first* person singular and plural, intimates *resolution* and *promising*; as, I *will* not let thee go, except thou bless me. We *will* go. I *will* make of thee a great nation.

Will, in the *second* and *third* persons, commonly *foretels*; as, He *will* reward the righteous. You, or they, *will* be very happy there.

Shall, in the *first* person, only *foretels*; as, I *shall* go to-morrow. We *shall* not return.

In the *second* and *third* persons, *shall*, *promises, commands, or threatens*; as, they, or you, *shall* be rewarded. Thou *shalt* not steal. The soul that sinneth *shall* die.

But this must be understood of affirmative sentences only; for when the sentence is interrogative, just the reverse commonly takes place; as, *Shall* I send you a little of the pie? i. e. *will you permit* me to send it? *Will* James return to-morrow? i. e. Do you expect him?

When the *second* and *third* persons are represented as the subjects of their own expressions, or their own thoughts, *SHALL* foretels as in the *first* person; as, "He says *he shall* be a loser by this bargain;" "Do you suppose you *shall go*?" And *WILL* promises, as in the *first* person; as, "He says he *will bring* Pope's Homer to-morrow;" "You say you *will* certainly come."

Of *Shall* it may be remarked, that it never expresses the *will* or *resolution* of its *nominative*. Thus, *I shall* fall; *Thou shalt* love thy neighbour; *He shall* be rewarded, express no resolution on the part of *I, thou, he*.

Did *Will*, on the contrary, always intimate the resolution of its *nominative*, the difficulty of applying *will* and *shall* would be at an end: But this cannot be said; for though *will* in the *first* person always expresses the resolution of its *nominative*, yet in the *second* and *third* persons it does not *always foretel*, but often intimates the resolution of its *nominative* as strongly as it does in the *first* person; thus, "Ye *will* not come unto me, that ye may have life." "He *will* not perform the duty of my husband's brother." *Deut.* xxv. 7; see also verse 9.

Accordingly *would*, the *past* time of *will*, is used in the same manner; as "And he was angry, and *would* not go in." *Luke* xv. 28.

Should and *would* are subject to the same rules as *shall* and *will*. They are generally attended with a supposition; as, Were I to run, I *should* soon be fatigued, &c.

Should is often used instead of *ought*, to express duty or obligation, as, "We *should* remember the poor." "We *ought* to obey God rather than men."

Would is sometimes used as a principal verb for *I wish*; as, "Would that they were gone," for "*I wish* that they were gone." Thus used it is in the present tense.

§ 21. INFLECTION OF VERBS.

To the inflection of verbs belong *Voices*, *Moods*, *Tenses*, *Numbers*, and *Persons*.

OF VOICE.

VOICE is a particular form of the verb which shows the relation of the *subject*, or thing spoken of, to the action expressed by the verb.

In English the transitive verb has always two voices, the *Active* and *Passive*.

The ACTIVE VOICE represents the subject of the verb as acting upon some object; as, James *strikes* the table.

Here the verb "*strikes*" in the active voice, indicates what its subject "*James*" does to the object *table*.

The PASSIVE VOICE represents the subject of the verb as acted upon by some person or thing; as, the table *is struck* by James.

Here the verb "*is struck*" in the passive voice indicates what is done to the subject "*table*" by James.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. The transitive verb always expresses the *same act* whether it be in the active or passive form. In both it is equally transitive, i. e. the act expressed by it in either form, *passes over* from the person or thing

acting, to the person or thing acted upon. Hence the same idea may be expressed with equal propriety in both forms, simply by changing the *object* of the active voice into the *subject* of the passive; thus,

Actively. *Cæsar conquered Gaul.*

Passively. *Gaul was conquered by Cæsar.*

Both these sentences express the same act "*conquering*." In both, "*Cæsar*" is represented as the conqueror, and "*Gaul*" the conquered. The meaning then being the same, the difference lies only in their grammatical structure. The subject of the verb in the first sentence is *Cæsar*,—in the second, *Gaul*;—in the first the subject is spoken of as *acting*,—in the second, *as acted upon*. It follows then that active and passive do not denote two different kinds of verb, but one kind under two different forms, denominated the ACTIVE and PASSIVE voice. It is manifest, however, that though both these forms express the same act, yet the subject of each stands in a different relation to that act. The subject of the active voice *puts forth* the act expressed by the verb, the subject of the passive *receives* it: in other words, the subject of the verb in the active voice is *active*; the subject of the verb in the passive voice is *passive*.

This power of the verb enables us not only to vary the form of expression at pleasure, but to fix the attention on the *actor* without regard to the object; as, "*James reads*;" or on the *object* without regard to the actor; as, "*virtue is praised*." This may be necessary when, as in some cases, the actor, or, in others, the object, is either unknown, or unimportant, or, for some reason, we may wish it not to be mentioned.

2. Intransitive verbs are sometimes rendered transitive, and so capable of a passive form, 1st. By the addition of another word; thus, "*I laugh*," is intransitive, and cannot have the passive form; but, "*I laugh at*," is transitive, and has the passive; as, "*I am laughed at*." 2. When followed by a noun of the same or similar signification as an object; as, intr. *I run*; trans. *I run a race*; passive, *A race is run by me*.

3. The same verbs are sometimes used in a transitive, and sometimes in an intransitive sense; thus, in the phrase, "*Charity thinketh no evil*," *think* is transitive: in the phrase, "*Think on me*," it is intransitive.

4. Many verbs in the active voice by an idiom peculiar to the English, are used in a sense nearly allied to the passive, but for which the passive will not always be a proper substitute. Thus, we say, "*This field ploughs well*;" "*These lines read smoothly*;" "*This fruit tastes bitter*;" "*Linen wears better than cotton*." The idea here expressed, is quite different from that expressed by the passive form, "*This field is well ploughed*;" "*These lines are smoothly read*." Sometimes, however, the same idea is expressed by both forms; thus, "*Wheat sells readily*," or "*is sold readily at an advanced price*." (Expressions of this kind are usually made in French by the reflected verb—thus, "*Ce champ se*

laboure bien ;" "*Ces lignes se lisent aisément.*") When used in this sense, they may properly be ranked with intransitive verbs, as they are never followed by an objective case

§ 22. OF THE MOODS.*

Mood is the *mode* or *manner* of expressing the signification of the verb.

Verbs have *five* moods ; namely, the *Indicative*, *Potential*, *Subjunctive*, *Imperative*, and *Infinitive*.

1. The *Indicative* mood simply declares a thing ; as, *He loves ; He is loved ;* Or, it asks a question ; as, *Lovest thou me ?*

2. The *Potential* mood never declares the positive existence of a thing, either as present, past, or future ; but simply the *possibility, liberty, power, will, or obligation* to be, to do, or to suffer ; as, *The wind may blow ; We may walk or ride ; I can swim ; He would not stay ; You should obey your parents.*

3. The *Subjunctive* mood represents a thing under a condition, supposition, motive, wish, &c. and is preceded by a conjunction, expressed or understood, and attended by another verb in the indicative future, potential, or imperative ; as, "*If thy presence go not with us, carry us not up hence.*"

4. The *Imperative* mood commands, exhorts, entreats, or permits ; as, *Do this ; Remember thy Creator ; Hear, O my people ; Go thy way for this time.*

5. The *Infinitive* mood expresses a thing in a

* Explanations of the moods and tenses of verbs, are inserted here for the sake of order ; but it would perhaps be improper to detain the learner so long as to commit them to memory : He may, therefore, after getting the definition of a verb, proceed to the inflection of it, without delay ; and when he comes to the exercises on the verbs, he can look back to the definition of verbs, moods, &c. as occasion may require

general manner, without any distinction of number or person, and commonly has *to* before it; as, *To love*.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE MOODS.

1. The future indicative is sometimes used potentially; i. e. the auxiliaries *will* and *shall* belong to the present potential, as well as *may*, or *can*, or *must*, when they express *present willingness* or *obligation*. In this case, the futurity implied is contingent, and not absolute; as, *He will* do it, if properly solicited. And hence the corresponding *would* and *should*, as well as *might* and *could*, belong to the past tense. The potential mood has no future tense.

2. The subjunctive mood is always dependent upon, or is *subjoined* to, another verb, expressed or understood. It is sometimes called *conjunctive*, because it is usually preceded by a conjunction; as, *if*, *though*, *unless*, &c. Sometimes it is called *conditional*, because it usually expresses a condition on which something is suspended. It differs in form from the indicative, in the present tense only;—in the verb *to be*, in the present and past. The potential mood is also used subjunctively, i. e. as dependent on another verb; as, *He would* do it *if he could* (do it.)

Respecting the form and extent of the subjunctive mood, there has been some variety of practice among writers, and much variety of opinion among Grammarians. Some deny the existence of a subjunctive form altogether; and consider what is called the subjunctive as only an elliptical form of the future or potential. Among these are ASH, WILSON, GRANT, and CROMBIE. Others, such as JOHNSON, WARD, and PINNOCK, assign to it a distinct form in the present and perfect, differing from the indicative in having the second and third persons singular the same as the first. Thus,

Present Sing. *If I love, If thou love, If he love.*

Perfect Sing. *If I have loved, If thou have loved, If he have loved.*

Though some examples of this form of the perfect subjunctive are found in old writers of high authority, (see 1 Tim. v. 10) it is believed to be now nearly, if not entirely, obsolete. LOWTH, and COOTE, and MURRAY, and the great body of Grammarians since their day, agreeably to the practice of the most correct and elegant writers, limit the subjunctive termination of the principal verb to the second and third persons singular of the present tense; all the other parts being precisely as the in-

dicative. The weight of authority is decidedly in favour of this practice, and accordingly in their place will be found full paradigms of the subjunctive mood in this form.

3. The imperative mood, strictly speaking, has only the second person, singular and plural; because, in commanding, exhorting, &c. the language of address is always used; thus, "Let him love," is equivalent to, "Let thou him love;" where *Let* is the proper imperative, and *love* the infinitive governed by it. (Syntax, § 67,—1, 2.)

4. The infinitive mood may be considered as a verbal noun, having the nominative and objective cases, but not the possessive; and hence it is used both as the subject of another verb, and as the object after it. (Syntax, § 47, Rule II.; and § 48, Rem. 3.)

NOTE. Some Grammarians are of opinion that no more moods or tenses ought to be assigned to the verb in English, than are distinguished by difference of form in the simple verb. This principle rejects at once the whole passive voice; and in the active, retains only the present and past tense of the indicative mood, and the present of the subjunctive. To carry out this principle to its full extent, we should reject also the plural number of the tenses that are left; for this is always in the same form with the first person singular. This certainly reduces the English verb to very narrow limits, and renders it a very simple thing; so simple, indeed, as to be of little use, being capable of expressing an action or state only in two relations of time.

This simplification of the verb, however, tends only to perplex the language; for though it reduces the number of moods and tenses, it does not, and can not, reduce the number of the forms of speech, by which the different times or modes of action are expressed. It is certain, for example, that we have such forms of speech as, "have loved," "shall love," "might love," &c. Now since these and other similar forms of speech only express different relations of time and manner of the one act, "to love," it certainly does seem more easy and simple to regard them as different moods and tenses of the verb *to love*, than to elevate the auxiliary to the rank of a principal verb, and then to combine them syntactically with the verb *to love*. Indeed, to dispose of them in this way satisfactorily, is not a quite easy or simple matter. For example, in the sentence, "I have written a letter," it is easy enough to say that *have* is a verb trans. &c. and *written* a perfect participle; but when we inquire, what does *have* govern? what does *written* agree with? a correct and satisfactory answer will not be so easily found. This example will perhaps show that it is much easier, and quite as satisfactory, to rank the expression as a certain mood and tense of the verb, "to write."

This theory has its foundation in the supposition, that a tense, or mood must necessarily mean a distinct form of the simple verb. This supposition, however, is entirely gratuitous. There is nothing in the meaning of the word *mood* or *tense*, which countenances it. A verb is a word which expresses action; *tense*, expresses the action connected with certain relations of time; *mood*, represents it as farther modified by

circumstances of contingency, conditionality, &c. ; but whether these modifications are expressed by a change in the form of the simple verb, or by its combination with certain auxiliaries, seems to be a matter perfectly indifferent. Indeed, the generally received opinion is, that the different forms of the verb, denominated *mood* and *tense*, in Latin and Greek, are nothing more than the incorporation of the auxiliary with the root of the simple verb. If so, why should not the uniform juxtaposition of the auxiliary with the verb, to answer the same purpose, be called by the same name ? If a certain auxiliary, connected with a verb, express a certain relation of time, properly denominated the future tense ; what essential difference can it make, whether the two words combine into one, or merely stand together ? On the whole, then, there is nothing gained by the proposed simplification : Indeed, on the contrary, much, even of simplicity, is lost ; and it moreover deprives our language of the analogy which it has in mood and tense with other languages, modern as well as ancient ; and if adopted, instead of smoothing the path of the learner, it would tend only to perplex and obscure it.

§ 23. OF TENSES OR DISTINCTIONS OF TIME.

TENSES are certain modifications of the verb which point out the distinctions of time.

The tenses in English are usually reckoned six. The *Present*, the *Imperfect*, the *Perfect*, the *Pluperfect*, the *Future*, and the *Future Perfect*.

Time is naturally divided into the *Present*, *Past*, and *Future* : And an action may be represented, either as incomplete and continuing, or, as completed at the time spoken of. This gives rise to six tenses, only two of which are expressed in English by a distinct form of the verb. The others are formed by the aid of auxiliary verbs, thus :

PRESENT.	{ <i>Action continuing</i> ; as, I love, I do love, or I am loving.
	{ <i>Action completed</i> ; as, I have loved.
PAST.	{ <i>Action continuing</i> ; as, I loved, I did love, or I was loving.
	{ <i>Action completed</i> ; as, I had loved.
FUTURE.	{ <i>Action continuing</i> ; as, I shall or will love.
	{ <i>Action completed</i> ; as, I shall have loved.

In order better to express the time, and the state of the action, by one designation, these tenses, in the above order, may be properly denominated, The *Present*, the *Present-perfect*, the *Past*, the *Past-perfect*, the *Future*, and the *Future-perfect*.

1. The *Present* tense expresses what is going on at the present time ; as, I *love* you.

2. The *Imperfect* tense represents an action or event indefinitely as past ; as, He *broke* the bottle and *spilt* the brandy ; or it represents the action definitely as unfinished and continuing at a certain time, now entirely past ; as, My father *was coming* home when I met him.

3. The *Perfect* tense represents an action as finished at the present time ; as, John *has cut* his finger ; I *have sold* my horse ; I *have done* nothing this week.

4. The *Pluperfect* represents an action or event as completed at or before a certain past time ; as, "All the judges *had taken* their places before Sir Roger came."

5. The *Future* tense represents an action or event indefinitely as yet to come ; as, "I *will see* you again, and your hearts *shall rejoice*."

6. The *Future-perfect* intimates that an action or event will be completed at or before a certain time yet future ; as, I *shall have got* my lesson before ten o'clock to-morrow.

OBS. The tenses inflected without an auxiliary, are called **SIMPLE** tenses ; those with an auxiliary, are called **COMPOUND** tenses. In the simple form of the verb, the *simple* tenses are the Present and Imperfect, Indicative and Subjunctive, Active ; all the other tenses are *compound*.

§ 24. OBSERVATIONS ON THE TENSES.

I. The Present tense has three distinct forms—the *simple* ; as, I read ; the *emphatic* ; as, I do read ; and the *progressive* ; as, I am reading. (§ 28.) The first or simple form expresses—

1. The simple existence of the fact; as, He speaks; She writes; They walk.

2. It is used to express what is habitual or always true; as, He takes snuff; She goes to church; Virtue is its own reward. In this sense it is applied to express the feelings which persons long since dead, or events already past usually excite in our minds; as, Nero is *abhorred* for his cruelty; Milton is *admired* for his sublimity.

3. In historical narration, it is used with great effect for the past tense; as, "Cæsar *leaves* Gaul, *crosses* the Rubicon, and *enters* Italy with five thousand men"—and sometimes for the Perfect; as, "In the book of Genesis, Moses *tells* us who were the descendants of Abraham," for *has told* us.

4. When preceded by such words as *when, before, as soon as, after,* and the like, it expresses the relative time of a future action; as, When he *comes* he will be welcome; As soon as the Post *arrives*, the letters will be distributed.

5. The *Emphatic* form expresses a fact with emphasis, and is made by adding the simple form without inflection to the auxiliary *do* in the Present and Imperfect Indicative; as, I *do love*, I *did love*: and by placing an emphasis on the auxiliary in the Compound tenses; as, I *WILL do* it. He *MUST go*. § 26.

6. The *Progressive* form represents an action as begun, and in progress at the time of speaking. It is formed by annexing the Present participle to the verb to be, as an auxiliary, through all its moods and tenses; as, I *am writing*, I *was writing*, &c. § 28.

II. The *Imperfect* tense has three distinct forms corresponding to those in the present tense: thus, I *loved*, I *did love*, I *was loving*. The first of these may be called *simple* and *indefinite*, because in itself it simply represents an action as past, without referring necessarily to any particular time at which it took place; as, "Cæsar *conquered* Gaul." It may, however, be rendered definite by introducing some definition of time; as, yesterday, last week, &c. The second form is *emphatic*, and expresses the same idea with emphasis. The third form may be termed *definite*, since it intimates an action continuing, and necessarily refers to a certain past time expressed or understood;

as, My father *was coming* home when I met him. All the forms of this tense speak of the action or event as taking place in a time now entirely past: Or if within a portion of time, some of which still remains, yet at a point of time in that portion having no connexion with the present moment; as, I *wrote* to-day.

III. The *Perfect* tense never connects an action or event with time *entirely past*, but always with time present; i. e. with the present instant, or with a period some part of which is yet present; as, this *day, week, year, &c.* Thus, we cannot say, I *have written* yesterday; but, I *have written* to-day, this week, &c. Of this tense there are two forms, e. g. I *have written*, and I *have been writing*. The latter properly represents the action as just completed at the present time; the former is less definite, expressing an action completed within a period extending to the present, but giving no information at what point in that period the completion was effected; as, "Many discoveries *have been made* in philosophy and the arts since the days of Bacon." It is also used to express an action or state *continued through* a period reaching to the present; as, He *has studied* grammar six months—or, if the action itself is long since past, still it is continued to the present in its consequences. Thus we can say, "Cicero *has written* orations," because the orations are still *in existence*; but we cannot say, "Cicero *has written* poems," but "Cicero *wrote* poems," because the poems do not now exist. Sometimes this tense is employed to express an attribute the contrary of that which is expressed by the verb. Thus, the Latins used *vixit*, "He hath lived," to denote "He is dead;" *Ilum fuit*, "Troy has been," to signify "Troy is no more." So in English, "I have been young," equivalent to "Now I am old."

IV. The *Pluperfect* tense has the same relation to the *Imperfect* tense that the *Perfect* has to the *present* tense. It has all that variety of form and use which the *perfect* has, but connects the *completed* action or event expressed by the verb with some point or period of time now wholly past; as, *then, yesterday, last century, &c.*; as, I *had written* yesterday; Many discoveries in philosophy and the arts *had been made before* the days of Bacon; At that time he *had studied* grammar six months.

V. The same general observations apply to the *Future* and *Future-perfect* tenses, in relation to a point or period of time yet future.

VI. The six tenses here enumerated belong but in part to all the moods, except the indicative. The potential has only four tenses; the subjunctive, in most verbs, only one distinct from the indicative; the imperative but one; the infinitive two; and the participle three.

VII. The Past tenses both of the Potential and Subjunctive moods are much less definite with respect to the time of the action or state expressed by the verb, than the same tenses in the Indicative. For examples of this in the Potential mood, see § 20, Obs. 2.

The Imperfect subjunctive expresses contingency, &c. respecting what is past, but yet unknown, only when referring to past time expressed or implied; as, "If I saw your friend last year I have forgotten it." But in connection with the potential mood, or not referring to past time, the imperfect subjunctive has this peculiarity of usage—it expresses a supposition with respect to something *present*, but *implies a denial of the thing supposed*; thus, "If I *had* the money *now* I would pay it," implies that I have it *not*. "If he were well (now) he would go,"—implying "he is sick." The present tense here conveys a very different idea; thus, "If I have the money, I will pay it," &c. In order to express the first of these examples in *past time*, the pluperfect must be used; thus, If I had had the money yesterday, I would have paid it.

§ 25. OF NUMBER AND PERSON.

1. Every tense of the verb except in the infinitive mood has two NUMBERS, the singular and plural; and each of these, three PERSONS.

The *First* person asserts of the person speaking; as, I write, we write.

The *Second*, asserts of the person spoken to; as, Thou writest, ye or you write.

The *Third*, asserts of the person or thing spoken of; as, He writes, they write. § 6 and § 15. Obs. 1.

§ 26. OF THE CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

1. The conjugation of a verb, is the regular combination and arrangement of its several *moods, tenses, numbers, and persons*.

2. In parsing, a verb is conjugated by giving its *Present*, and *Imperfect* tenses, and *Perfect Parti-*

ciple whether it be in the active or in the passive voice; thus,

	<i>Present,</i>	<i>Imperfect,</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
ACTIVE.	Love,	Loved,	Loved.
PASSIVE.	Am loved,	Was loved,	Been loved.

3. The regular verb, *to love*, is inflected through all its moods and tenses, as follows :—

ACTIVE VOICE.

<i>Present.</i> Love.	<i>Imperfect.</i> Loved.	<i>Perf. Part.</i> Loved.
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INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. (*Simple Form.*)

Singular.

1. person I love.
2. Thou lovest
3. He loves or loveth.

Plural.

1. We love.
2. Ye or you* love.
3. They love.

Present Tense. (*Emphatic Form.*)

Singular.

1. I do love.
2. Thou dost love.
3. He does love.

Plural.

1. We do love.
2. You do love.
3. They do love.

Imperfect, (or Past) Tense. (*Simple Form.*)

Singular.

1. I loved.
2. Thou lovedst.
3. He loved.

Plural.

1. We loved.
2. You loved.
3. They loved.

Imperfect Tense. (*Emphatic Form.*)

Singular.

1. I did love.
2. Thou didst love.
3. He did love.

Plural.

1. We did love.
2. You did love.
3. They did love.

* *You* has always a plural verb, even when applied to a *single individual*.—

§ 15, Obs. 3. *Ye*, being seldom used, is omitted in the other tenses to save room

Perfect, (or Present Perfect) Tense.

Signs—*Have, hast, has or hath.*

Singular.

1. I have loved.
2. Thou hast loved.
3. He has or hath loved.

Plural.

1. We have loved.
2. You have loved.
3. They have loved.

Pluperfect, (or Past Perfect) Tense.

Signs—*Had, hadst.*

Singular.

1. I had loved.
2. Thou hadst loved.
3. He had loved.

Plural.

1. We had loved.
2. You had loved.
3. They had loved.

Future Tense.

Signs—*Shall or will.*

Singular.

1. I shall or will love.
2. Thou shalt or wilt love.
3. He shall or will love.

Plural.

1. We shall or will love.
2. You shall or will love.
3. They shall or will love.

Future Perfect Tense.

Signs—*Shall have, or will have.*

Singular.

1. Shall or will have loved.
2. Shalt or wilt have loved.
3. Shall or will have loved.

Plural.

1. Shall or will have loved.
2. Shall or will have loved.
3. Shall or will have loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Signs—*May, can, or must.*

Singular.

1. May or can or must love.
2. Mayst or canst or must love.
3. May or can or must love.

Plural.

1. May or can or must love.
2. May or can or must love.
3. May or can or must love.

Imperfect, (or Past) Tense.

Signs—*Might, could, would, or should.*

Singular.

1. Might, could, would, *or* should love.
2. Mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst love.
3. Might, could, would, *or* should love.

Plural.

1. Might, could, would, *or* should love.
2. Might, could, would, *or* should love.
3. Might, could, would, *or* should love.

Perfect, (or Present Perfect) Tense.

Signs—*May have, or must have.*

Singular.

1. May *or* must have loved.
2. Mayst *or* must have loved.
3. May *or* must have loved.

Plural.

1. May *or* must have loved.
2. May *or* must have loved.
3. May *or* must have loved.

Pluperfect, (or Past Perfect) Tense.

Signs—*Might have, could have, would have, or should have.*

Singular.

1. Might, could, would, *or* should have loved.
2. Mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst have loved.
3. Might, could, would, *or* should have loved.

Plural.

1. Might, could, would, *or* should have loved.
2. Might, could, would, *or* should have loved.
3. Might, could, would, *or* should have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. *If* I love.
2. *If* thou love.
3. *If* he love.

Plural.

1. *If* we love.
2. *If* you love.
3. *If* they love.*

Emphatic Form.

Singular.

1. *If* I do love.
2. *If* thou do love.
3. *If* he do love.

Plural.

1. *If* we do love.
2. *If* you do love.
3. *If* they do love.

* The conjunctions, *if, though, unless, &c.* do not form any part of the sub-

Imperfect, (or Past) Tense.

Singular.

1. *If I loved.*
2. *If thou lovedst.*
3. *If he loved.*

Plural.

1. *If we loved.*
2. *If you loved.*
3. *If they loved.*

*Emphatic Form.**Singular.*

1. *If I did love.*
2. *If thou didst love.*
3. *If he did love.*

Plural.

1. *If we did love.*
2. *If you did love.*
3. *If they did love.*

Perfect, (or Present Perfect) Tense.

Singular.

1. *If I have loved.*
2. *If thou hast loved.*
3. *If he has or hath loved.*

Plural.

1. *If we have loved.*
2. *If you have loved.*
3. *If they have loved.*

Pluperfect, (or Past Perfect) Tense.

Singular.

1. *If I had loved.*
2. *If thou hadst loved.*
3. *If he had loved.*

Plural.

1. *If we had loved.*
2. *If you had loved.*
3. *If they had loved.*

Future Tense.

Singular.

1. *If I shall or will love.*
2. *If thou shalt or wilt love.*
3. *If he shall or will love.*

Plural.

1. *If we shall or will love.*
2. *If you shall or will love.*
3. *If they shall or will love.*

Future Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. *If I shall or will have loved.*
2. *If thou shalt or wilt have loved.*
3. *If he shall or will have loved.*

Plural.

1. *If we shall or will have loved.*
2. *If you shall or will have loved.*
3. *If they shall or will have loved.*

indicative mood, but are usually placed before it, to express a condition, supposition, motive, wish, &c. See § 21, 3, and § 22, Obs. 2.

N. B. For the *Progressive* form of the verb, see § 23.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

*Singular.**Plural.*2. Love, or Love thou, or
Do thou love.2. Love, or Love ye or you,
or Do ye love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To love.*Perfect.* To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Loving. *Perfect.* Loved. *Compound perf.* Having loved.EXERCISES ON THE TENSES OF VERBS, AND CASES OF NOUNS
AND PRONOUNS.

*Tell the person, number, mood, and tense of,—*They love ; learn you ; they had walked ; he shall have learned ; thou hadst painted ; we can gain ; to form ; to have joined ; obeys ; lovedst ; teaches ; we could stand ; she has learned ; we shall have gone ; they will have come ; I do love ; thou didst love ; they did love.

*Parse the following words and sentences :**—We love him ; I love you ; James loves me ; it amuses him ; we shall conduct them ; they will divide the spoil ; soldiers should defend their country ; friends invite friends ; she can read her lesson ; she may play a tune ; you might please her ; thou mayest ask him ; he may have betrayed us ; we might have diverted the children ; Tom can deliver the message.

I love ; to love ; love ; reprove thou ; has loved ; we

* QUESTIONS which may be put to the pupils:—How do you know that *love* is plural ? *Ans.* Because *we*, its nominative, is plural. How do you know that *love* is the first person ? *Ans.* Because *we* is the first personal pronoun, and the verb is always of the same number and person with the noun or pronoun before it.

Many of the phrases in this page may be converted into exercises of a different kind ; thus, the meaning of the sentence, *We love him*, may be expressed by the passive voice ; as *He is loved by us*. It may also be turned into a question, or made a negative ; as, *Do we love him ?* &c. *We do not love him*.

tied the knot ; if we love ; if thou love ; they could have commanded armies ; to love ; to baptize ; to have loved ; loved ; loving ; to survey ; having surveyed ; write a letter ; read your lesson ; thou hast obeyed my voice ; honour thy father ; his mother teaches him ; love ; loved.

The teacher, if he chooses, may now acquaint the learner with the difference between the Nominative and Objective.

When the verb is active, the Nominative *acts* ; the Objective *is acted upon* ; as, He eats apples.

The Nominative commonly comes *before* the verb ; the Objective *after* it ; as, *We* saw *them*. In asking questions, the nominative follows the verb in the simple tenses, and the auxiliary in the compound tenses ; as, Lovest *thou* me ? did *he* come ? may *we* go ? is *it* finished ?

We may parse the first sentence, for example. *We* love ; *We*, the first personal pronoun, masculine or feminine, plural, the nominative ; *love*, a verb trans. in the pres. indicative, active, first pers. plu. ; *him*, the third personal pronoun, masculine, singular, the objective.

§ 27. The intransitive irregular verb **TO BE**, is inflected through all its moods and tenses, as follows :

Present. Am. Imperfect. Was. Perfect participle. Been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am.	1. We are.
2. Thou art.	2. You are.
3. He is.	3. They are.

Imperfect, (or Past) Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I was.	1. We were
2. Thou wast.	2. You were.
3. He was.	3. They were.

Perfect, (or Present Perfect) Tense.

Singular.

1. I have been.
2. Thou hast been.
3. He has been.

Plural.

1. We have been.
2. You have been.
3. They have been.

Pluperfect, (or Past Perfect) Tense.

Singular.

1. I had been.
2. Thou hadst been.
3. He had been

Plural.

1. We had been.
2. You had been.
3. They had been.

Future Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall or will be.
2. Thou shalt or wilt be.
3. He shall or will be.

Plural.

1. We shall or will be.
2. You shall or will be.
3. They shall or will be.

Future-perfect Tense.

Singular

1. Shall or will have been.
2. Shalt or wilt have been.
3. Shall or will have been.

Plural.

1. Shall or will have been.
2. Shall or will have been.
3. Shall or will have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I may or can or must be.
2. Thou mayst or canst or must be.
3. He may or can or must be.

Plural.

1. We may or can or must be.
2. You may or can or must be.
3. They may or can or must be.

Imperfect, (or Past) Tense.

Singular.

1. Might, could, would, or should be.
2. Mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be.
3. Might, could, would, or should be.*

Plural.

1. Might, could, would, or should be.
2. Might, could, would, or should be.
3. Might, could, would, or should be.

* *Were* is sometimes used for *would be* in the 3rd singular; thus, "That *were* *ow* indeed"—MILT.

Perfect, (or Present Perfect) Tense.

Singular.

1. May *or* must have been.
2. Mayst *or* must have been.
3. May *or* must have been.

Plural.

1. May *or* must have been.
2. May *or* must have been.
3. May *or* must have been.

Pluperfect, (or Past Perfect) Tense.

Singular.

1. Might, could, would, *or* should have been.
2. Mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst have been.
3. Might, could, would, *or* should have been.

Plural.

1. Might, could, would, *or* should have been.
2. Might, could, would, *or* should have been.
3. Might, could, would, *or* should have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If I be.
2. If thou be.
3. If he be.

Plural.

1. If we be.
2. If you be.
3. If they be.

Imperfect, (or Past) Tense.

Singular.

1. Were I, *or if* I were.
2. Wert thou, *or if* thou wert.
3. Were he, *or if* he were.

Plural.

1. Were we, *or if* we were.
2. Were you, *or if* you were.
3. Were they, *or if* they were.

Perfect, (or Present Perfect) Tense.

Singular.

1. If I have been.
2. If thou hast been.
3. If he has been.

Plural.

1. If we have been.
2. If you have been.
3. If they have been.

Pluperfect, (or Past Perfect) Tense.

Singular.

1. If I had been.
2. If thou hadst been.
3. If he had been.

Plural.

1. If we had been.
2. If you had been.
3. If they had been.

Future Tense.

Singular.

1. *If I shall or will be.*
2. *If thou shalt or wilt be.*
3. *If he shall or will be.*

Plural.

1. *If we shall or will be.*
2. *If you shall or will be.*
3. *If they shall or will be.*

Future-perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. *If I shall or will have been.*
2. *If thou shalt or wilt have been.*
3. *If he shall or will have been.*

Plural.

1. *If we shall or will have been.*
2. *If you shall or will have been.*
3. *If they shall or will have been.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

2. *Be,* or Be thou.*

Plural.

2. *Be, or Be ye or you.*

INFINITIVE MOOD.

*Present. To be.**Perfect. To have been.*

PARTICIPLES.

*Pres. Being.**Perf. Been.**Compound-perfect. Having been*EXERCISES ON THE VERB *TO BE*.

Am, is, art, wast, I was, they were, we are, hast been, has been, we have been, hadst been, he had been, you have been, she has been, we were, they had been.

I shall be, shalt be, we will be, thou wilt be, they shall be, it will be, thou wilt have been, we have been, they will have been, we shall have been, am, it is.

I can be, mayest be, canst be, she may be, you may be, he must be, they should be, mightst be, he would be, it could be, wouldst be, you could be, he may have been, wast.

We may have been, mayst have been, they may have been, I might have been, you should have been, wouldst

* *Be* is sometimes used in the Scriptures, and some other books, for the *present indicative*; as, "We *be* true men;" for "We *are* true men."

have been ; (if) thou be, we be, he be, thou wert, we were, I be.

Be thou, be, to be, being, to have been, if I be, be ye, been, be, having been, if we be, if they be, to be.

Snow is white ; he was a good man ; we have been younger ; she has been happy ; it had been late ; we are old ; you will be wise ; it will be time ; if they be thine ; be cautious ; be heedful youth ; we may be rich ; they should be virtuous ; thou mightst be wiser ; they must have been excellent scholars ; they might have been powerful.

§ 28. PROGRESSIVE FORM.

The *Progressive* form of the verb (§ 24. 6) is inflected by prefixing the verb *to be* through all its moods and tenses to the present participle ; thus,

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	1. I am loving.	2. Thou art loving, &c.
<i>Imperfect.</i>	1. I was loving.	2. Thou wast loving, &c.
<i>Perfect.</i>	1. I have been loving.	2. Thou hast been loving, &c.
<i>Pluperfect.</i>	1. I had been loving.	2. Thou hadst been loving, &c.
<i>Future.</i>	1. I shall be loving.	2. Thou shalt be loving, &c.
<i>Future perf.</i>	1. I shall or will have been loving.	2. Thou shalt or wilt have been loving, &c.

Note. In this manner go through the other moods and tenses.

§ 29. PASSIVE VOICE.

The *Passive* voice is inflected by adding the perfect participle to the auxiliary verb *to be* (§ 27.) through all its moods and tenses ; thus,

Pres. Am loved. *Imperfect.* Was loved. *Perf. Part.* Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I am loved.
2. Thou art loved.
3. He is loved.

Plural.

1. We are loved.
2. You are loved.
3. They are loved.

Imperfect, (or Past) Tense.

Singular.

1. Was loved.
2. Wast loved.
3. Was loved.

Plural.

1. Were loved.
2. Were loved.
3. Were loved.

Perfect, (or Present Perfect) Tense.

Singular.

1. Have been loved.
2. Hast been loved.
3. Has been loved.

Plural.

1. Have been loved.
2. Have been loved.
3. Have been loved.

Pluperfect, (or Past Perfect) Tense.

Singular.

1. Had been loved.
2. Hadst been loved.
3. Had been loved.

Plural.

1. Had been loved.
2. Had been loved.
3. Had been loved.

Future Tense.

Singular.

1. Shall or will be loved.
2. Shalt or wilt be loved.
3. Shall or will be loved.

Plural.

1. Shall or will be loved.
2. Shall or will be loved.
3. Shall or will be loved.

Future-perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. Shall or will have been loved.
2. Shalt or wilt have been loved.
3. Shall or will have been loved.

Plural.

1. Shall or will have been loved.
2. Shall or will have been loved.
3. Shall or will have been loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. May or can be loved.
2. Mayst or canst be loved.
3. May or can be loved.

Plural.

1. May or can be loved.
2. May or can be loved.
3. May or can be loved.

Imperfect, (or Past) Tense.

Singular.

1. Might, &c. be loved.
2. Mightst, be loved.
3. Might, be loved.

Plural.

1. Might, &c. be loved.
2. Might, be loved.
3. Might, be loved.

Perfect, (or Present Perfect) Tense.

Singular.

1. May or must have been loved.
2. Mayst or must have been loved.
3. May or must have been loved.

Plural.

1. May or must have been loved.
2. May or must have been loved.
3. May or must have been loved.

Pluperfect, (or Past Perfect) Tense.

Singular.

1. Might, &c. have been loved.
2. Mightst, have been loved.
3. Might, have been loved.

Plural.

1. Might, &c. have been loved.
2. Might, have been loved.
3. Might, have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If I be loved
2. If thou be loved.
3. If he be loved.

Plural.

1. If we be loved.
2. If you be loved.
3. If they be loved.

Imperfect, (or Past) Tense.

Singular.

1. Were I loved, or If I were loved.
2. Wert thou loved, or If thou wert loved.
3. Were he loved, or If he were loved.

Plural.

1. Were we loved, or If we were loved.
2. Were you loved, or If you were loved.
3. Were they loved, or If they were loved.

Perfect, (or Present Perfect) Tense.

Singular.

1. *If I have been loved.*
2. *If thou hast been loved.*
3. *If he has been loved.*

Plural.

1. *If we have been loved.*
2. *If you have been loved.*
3. *If they have been loved.*

Pluperfect, (or Past Perfect) Tense.

Singular.

1. *If I had been loved.*
2. *If thou hadst been loved.*
3. *If he had been loved.*

Plural.

1. *If we had been loved.*
2. *If you had been loved.*
3. *If they had been loved.*

Future Tense.

Singular.

1. *If I shall or will be loved.*
2. *If thou shalt or wilt be loved.*
3. *If he shall or will be loved.*

Plural.

1. *If we shall or will be loved.*
2. *If you shall or will be loved.*
3. *If they shall or will be loved.*

Future-perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. *If I shall or will have been loved.*
2. *If thou shalt or wilt have been loved.*
3. *If he shall or will have been loved.*

Plural.

1. *If we shall or will have been loved.*
2. *If you shall or will have been loved.*
3. *If they shall or will have been loved.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

1. *Be thou loved.*

Plural.

2. *Be ye or you loved.*

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To be loved.*Perf.* To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. Being loved.*Perf.* Loved.*Compound perf.* Having been loved.

✎ After the pupil is *expert* in going over the tenses of the verb, as given in the above tables, he may then be exercised in using *one* auxiliary at a time.—

EXERCISES ON THE VERB PASSIVE.

They are loved ; we were loved ; thou art loved ; it is loved ; she was loved ; he has been loved ; you have been loved ; I have been loved ; thou hadst been loved ; we shall be loved ; thou wilt be loved ; they will be loved ; I shall have been loved ; you will have been loved.

He can be loved ; thou mayst be loved ; she must be loved ; they might be loved ; ye would be loved ; they should be loved ; I could be loved ; thou mayst have been loved ; it may have been loved ; you might have been loved ; if I be loved ;* thou wert loved ; we be loved ; they be loved. Be thou loved ; be ye loved ; you be loved. To be loved ; loved ; having been loved ; to have been loved ; being loved.

Promiscuous Exercises on Verbs, and Cases of Nouns and Pronouns.

Tie John's shoes ; this is Jane's bonnet ; ask mamma ; he has learned his lesson ; she invited him ; your father may commend you ; he was baptized ; the minister baptized him ; we should have delivered our message ; papa will reprove us ; divide the apples ; the captain had commanded his soldiers to pursue the enemy ; Eliza diverted her brother ; a hunter killed a hare ; were I loved ; were we good we should be happy ; James did write ; they are reading ; I have been running ; I did run ; they do come ; he might be doing something , they must have been travelling.

Thus, *Present* Potential, I *may* love ; Thou *mayest* love, &c. And then with the next auxiliary ; I *can* love ; Thou *canst* love ; He *can* love. And then with the next ; I *must* love ; Thou *must* love ; He *must* love, &c., proceeding in the same manner with the auxiliaries of the *Imperfect*, *Perfect*, and *Pluperfect*.

* A Conjunction is frequently to be understood here.

§ 30. OF THE PARTICIPLES.

1. The PARTICIPLE is a part of the verb which contains no affirmation, but expresses *being, doing or suffering*, as a general quality of an object, and has the same construction as the adjective. The Participles are three, the Present, the Perfect, and the Compound-Perfect.

2. The present participle in *-ing* always expresses an action, or the suffering of an action, or the being, state, or condition of a thing as *continuing* and *progressive*.

3. The *Present participle* of the active voice has an active signification; as, James is *building* the house. In many of these, however, it has also a passive signification; as, the house *was building* when the wall fell.

4. The *Present participle* passive has only a passive signification, and intimates the present existence of an act as *completed*, but never as *in progress*. Thus, "The arrangements *being made*, he is now ready to proceed." In this sentence, "the arrangements," are evidently considered as completed. To represent them as in progress, we would say thus: "While the arrangements are *making*, his superintendence is indispensable"—using the participle *making* in the passive sense.

5. The Perfect participle, in trans. verbs, has either an *active* or *passive* signification; as, "He has concealed a dagger under his cloak;" or, "He has a dagger concealed under his cloak."

6. The Compound-perfect participle has an active signification only in the active voice, and a passive signification only in the passive voice.

7. The participle in *-ing* is often used as a verbal noun, having the nominative and objective cases, but not the possessive. In this character, the participle of a trans. verb may still retain the government of the verb, or it may be divested of it by inserting the preposition *of* after it, in which case an article or possessive pronoun should always precede it.—See Syntax, § 64.

§ 31. OBSERVATIONS.

It has lately become common to use the present participle *passive* to express the suffering of an action as *continuing*, instead of the participle in *-ing* in the passive sense; thus, instead of, "The house is

building," we now very frequently hear, "The house is being built." This mode of expression, besides being awkward, is incorrect, and does not express the idea intended. This will be obvious, I think, from the following considerations.

1. The expression, "*is being*," is equivalent to, "*is*," and expresses no more; just as, "*is loving*," is equivalent to, "*loves*." Hence, "*is being built*," is precisely equivalent to "*is built*."

2. "*Built*," is a perfect participle; and therefore cannot, in any connexion, express an action, or the suffering of an action, *now in progress*. The verb *to be*, signifies to *exist*; "*being*," therefore, is equivalent to "*existing*." If then we substitute the synonyme, the nature of the expression will be obvious; thus, "the house is *being built*," is in other words, "the house is *existing built*," or more simply as before, "the house is built;" plainly importing an action not *progressing*, but now *existing in a finished state*.

3. If the expression "*is being built*" be a correct form of the present indicative passive, then it must be equally correct to say in the present perfect, "*has been being built*;" in the pluperfect, "*had been being built*;" in the present infinitive, "*to be being built*;" in the perfect infinitive, "*to have been being built*;" and in the present participle, "*being being built*;" which all will admit to be expressions as incorrect as they are inelegant, but precisely analogous to that which now begins to prevail.

This mode of expression has probably arisen from assuming that the English participle in *-ing* corresponds to the Latin participle in *ns*, which has always an active signification, and that the perfect participle in English corresponds to the perfect participle in Latin, which, except in deponent verbs, is always passive. But since it is obvious that the analogy does not hold between the two languages in the latter case, there is no good reason why it should hold in the former. On the contrary, as the perfect participle in English has both an active and passive signification, analogy claims an equal latitude of meaning for the participle in *-ing*; and this claim has been allowed by the best writers of the English language. The present participle active, and the present participle passive, are not counterparts to each other in signification; the one signifying the present doing, and the other the present suffering of an action, for the latter always intimates the present being of an act, not in progress, but completed. The proper counterpart to the participle in *-ing* in the active sense, is the same participle in its passive sense, or some equivalent circumlocution, when a passive sense is not admitted.

It is true that of many verbs, the participle in *-ing* is not used in a passive sense. For example, we would not say, "the book is reading." It would be equally incorrect to say, "the book is being read." Our not using the former expression in this case, and in others of a similar nature, is owing to this, that custom has sanctioned a different mode of expressing the same idea.

QUESTIONS ON THE VERB.

§ 19. *What is a verb? How many kinds of verbs are there. Define a transitive verb—an intransitive verb.* Into what three classes may all verbs be divided? What is a regular verb?—an irregular?—a defective? What sort of a distinction is active and passive? Have intransitive verbs any distinction of voice? How are some intransitive verbs rendered transitive? Are transitive verbs ever used in an intransitive sense? Give an example.

§ 20. *What are auxiliary verbs? Name them. What kind of a verb is let?—ought? What does shall imply?—will?—may?—can? Name the past tenses of these verbs. Do they always express past time? If not, how is the time expressed by them to be ascertained? What does will express in the first person?—in the second and third? What does shall express in the first person?—in the second and third?*

§ 21, 22. *How is a verb inflected? How many voices are there? How are they distinguished? What is mood? How many moods are there? Define the indicative,—the potential,—the subjunctive,—the imperative,—the infinitive. What tense of the indicative is used potentially? On what is the subjunctive always dependent? By what other name is it called? In what tense does it differ from the indicative? What person has the imperative mood? Why? What is the proper character of the infinitive?*

§ 23. *What is meant by tense? How many tenses are there? Name them? How is time naturally divided? In what different states do the tenses represent an action in each of these divisions of time? What tenses represent the act as incomplete and continuing? What tenses represent it as completed? How does the Present tense represent an action?—the Past?—the Perfect?—the Pluperfect?—the Future?—the Future-perfect?*

§ 24. *How many distinct forms has the Present tense? Give the forms of the present of the verb "to love." Distinguish them by names, and state how they are applied. How many forms are there of the Imperfect tense? Give examples, and distinguish them by names. How is the indefinite applied?—the emphatic?—the pro-*

gressive or definite?—How many forms has the Perfect? How are they applied? In what different ways is the less definite form applied? Can this tense be used to express an act completed prior to the present, as yesterday, last week, &c.? Give the different forms and application of the Pluperfect,—of the Future,—of the Future-perfect.

§ 25. *How many numbers are there? How many persons? What does the first person indicate?—the second?—the third? Which persons are always alike? How is the second person singular formed?—the third person singular?*

§ 26. *How are verbs divided in respect of their inflection? What is a regular verb?—an irregular verb?—How is a verb conjugated? In the indicative mood, what are the signs of the Perfect?—of the Pluperfect?—of the Future?—of the Future-perfect? In the Potential mood, what are the signs of the Present?—of the Imperfect?—of the Perfect?—of the Pluperfect?*

§ 30. *What is a Participle? How many Participles are there? Name them. What does the participle in ing express? Has it ever a passive sense?—Give an example. How is the Present participle passive used?—the Perfect participle active?—the Perfect? Describe the use of the Present participle as a verbal noun.*

§ 32. OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

1. An IRREGULAR verb is one that does not form both its *imperfect tense* and *perfect participle* by adding *d* or *ed* to the present; as,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Abide	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke R*	awaked
Bake	baked	baken R
Bear, <i>to bring forth</i>	bare or bore	born
Bear, <i>to carry</i>	bore or bare	borne
Beat	beat	beaten or beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent R	bent R

* Those verbs which are conjugated regularly as well as irregularly, are marked with an R.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Bereave	bereft R	bereft R
Beseech	besought	besought
Bid	bade, bid	bidden
Bind <i>un-</i>	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke, brake	broken
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build <i>re-</i>	built, R	built, R
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught R	caught R
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, <i>to adhere</i>	clave R	cleaved
Cleave, <i>to split</i>	clove or cleft	cloven or cleft
Cling	clung	elung
Clothe	clothed	clad R
Come <i>be-</i>	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Crow	crew R	crowed
Creep	crept	crept
Cut	cut	cut
Dare, <i>to venture</i>	durst	dared
Dare, <i>to challenge is</i> R	dared	dared
Deal	dealt R	dealt R
Dig	dug R	dug R
Do <i>mis- un-</i>	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Drive	drove	driven
Drink	drank	drunk
Dwell	dwelt R	dwelt R
Eat	ate	eaten
Fall <i>be-</i>	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborn
Forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get <i>be- for-</i>	gat <i>or</i> got	gotten <i>or</i> got
Gild	gilt R	gilt R
Gird <i>be- en-</i>	girt R	girt R
Give <i>for- mis-</i>	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave <i>en- R</i>	graved	graven
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Have	had	had
Hang	hung	hung*
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	hove R	hoven R
Hew	hewed	hewn R
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Hit	hit	hit
Hold <i>be- with-</i>	held	held <i>or</i> holden
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Knit	knit R	knit <i>or</i> knitted
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lead <i>mis-</i>	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie, <i>to lie down</i>	lay	lain <i>or</i> lien
Light	lighted <i>or</i> lit	lighted <i>or</i> lit
Load	loaded	laden R

* *Hang*, to take away life by hanging, is regular; as, The robber was *hang*ed, but the gown was *hung* up.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Mect	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown R
Pay re-	paid	paid
Put	put	put
Quit	quit R	quit
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode	rode, ridden*
Ring	rang or rung	rung
Rise a-	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven
Rot	rotted	rotten R
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawn R
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set be-	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape mis-	shaped	shapen R
Shave	shaved	shaven R
Shear	shore R	shorn
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone R	shone R
Show†	showed	shown
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Shrink	shrank or shrunk	shrunk
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sang or sung	sung
Sink	sank or sunk	sunk

* *Ridden* is nearly obsolete.

† *Shew, shewed, shewn*,—pronounced *show*, &c. See foot of next page.

<i>Present</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Sit	sat	sat or sitten*
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slidden
Sling	slang, slung	slung
Slink	slank, slunk	slunk
Slit	slit R	slit or slitted
Smite	smote	smitten
Sow	sowed	sown R
Speak <i>be-</i>	spoke or spake	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spend <i>mis-</i>	spent	spent
Spill	spilt R	spilt R
Spin	span, spun	span
Spit <i>be-</i>	spat, spit	spit or spitten
Split	split R	split R
Spread <i>be-</i>	spread	spread
Spring	sprang or sprung	sprung
Stand <i>with- &c.</i>	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stride <i>be-</i>	strode or strid	stridden
Strike	struck	struck, stricken
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strew† <i>be-</i>	strewed	strewed or
Strow <i>be-</i>	strowed	strown, strowed
Swear	swore, sware	sworn
Sweat	sweat	sweat
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swollen R
Swim	swam or swum	swum
Swing	swang or swung	swung
Take <i>be- &c.</i>	took	taken
Teach <i>mis- re-</i>	taught	taught
Tear <i>un-</i>	tore or tare	torn

* *Sitten* and *spitten* are nearly obsolete, though preferable to *sat* and *spit*.

† *Strew* and *shew* are now giving way to *strow* and *show*, as they are pronounced.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Tell	told	told
Think <i>be-</i>	thought	thought
Thrive	throve	thriven
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trodden
Wax	waxed	waxen
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Win	won	won
Wind	wound R	wound
Work	wrought R	wrought, worked
Wring	wrung R	wrung
Write	wrote	written

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

2. DEFECTIVE verbs are those which want some of their moods and tenses. They are also irregular, and chiefly auxiliary : these are,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Can	could	———	Shall	should	———
May	might	———	Will	would	———
Must	———	———	Wis	wist	———
Ought	———	———	Wit or	} wot	———
Quoth	quoth	———	Wot		———

OES. *Ought* was originally the past tense of the verb *to owe*. It is now used to signify present duty, as *must* is used to signify present obligation or necessity ; as, "Speaking things which they ought not." When applied to what is past, the past time is noted by the preterite of the subsequent verb ; thus, "These things ought ye to have done." *Will*, as an auxiliary, is inflexible in the third person singular ; as, he *will* go. The second person singular has *wilt*. It is sometimes used as a principal verb ; as, he *will*s to go. *Wis*, *wist*, which signifies "to think," or "to imagine," is now obsolete. *Wit* is now confined to the phrase *to wit*, or *namely*.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

3. IMPERSONAL verbs are those which assert the

existence of some action or state, but refer it to no particular subject. They are preceded by the pronoun *it*, and are always in the third person singular. To this head may be referred such expressions as, *It hails, it snows, it rains, it thunders, it be-hoveth, it irketh*; and perhaps also, *methinks, methought, meseems, meseemed*, in which, instead of *it*, the first personal pronoun in the objective case, *me*, is prefixed to the third person singular of the verb.

QUESTIONS ON IRREGULAR DEFECTIVE AND IMPERSONAL VERBS.

What is an irregular verb? Are there any verbs which are both regular and irregular? Give an example. What are defective verbs? Are they chiefly regular or irregular? Name the principal defective verbs. What was ought originally? How is it now used? What are impersonal verbs? In what person are they always used? Give an example. What kind of a verb is methinks, methought, &c.?

EXERCISES ON THE IRREGULAR VERBS.

Name the Imperfect tense and Perfect participle of— Take, drive, creep, begin, abide, buy, bring, arise, catch, bereave, am, burst, draw, drink, fly, flee, fall, get, give, go, feel, forsake, grow, have, hear, hide, keep, know, lose, pay, ride, ring, shake, run, seek, sell, see, sit, slay, slide, smite, speak, stand, tell, win, write, weave, tear.

§ 33. VI. OF ADVERBS.

AN ADVERB is a word joined to a *verb*, an *adjective*, or another *adverb*, to modify or denote some circumstance respecting it; as, Ann speaks *distinctly*; she is *remarkably* diligent, and reads *very* *correctly*.

Adverbs have been divided into various classes, according to their signification. The chief of these are such as denote,

1. **QUALITY or MANNER** simply; as, well, ill, bravely, prudently softly; with innumerable others, formed from adjectives by adding *ly*, or changing *le* into *ly*; thus, *tame*, *tamely*; *sensible*, *sensibly*, &c.

2. **PLACE**; as, here, there, where,—hither, thither, whither.—Hence, thence, whence,—somewhere, nowhere, whithersoever, &c.—separately, asunder.

3. **TIME**; as, now, then, when; soon, often, seldom; ever, never, while, whilst; already, still, yet, since, ago; once, twice, thrice; again, hereafter, hitherto; yesterday, to-day, to-morrow; lately, presently, by and bye, &c.

4. **DIRECTION**; as, upward, downward, backward, forward, heavenward, homeward, hitherward, thitherward, whitherward, &c.

5. **NEGATION**; as, nay, no, not, nowise.

6. **AFFIRMATION**; as, verily, truly, undoubtedly, yea, yes, certainly, indeed, doubtless, &c.

7. **UNCERTAINTY**; as, perhaps, peradventure, perchance.

8. **INTERROGATION**; as, how, why, when, wherefore, where, whither, whence.

9. **COMPARISON**; as, more, most, less, least; well, better, best; as, so, thus, very, rather, exceedingly, extremely, almost, nearly.

10. **QUANTITY**; as, much, little, enough, sufficiently.

11. **NUMBER**; as, first, secondly, thirdly, &c. formed from the ordinal numeral adjective, (§ 13, Obs. 9,) by adding *ly*.

§ 34. OBSERVATIONS ON ADVERBS.

1. The chief use of adverbs is to shorten discourse, by expressing in one word what would otherwise require two or more; as, *here*, for “in this place;” *nobly*, for “in a noble manner,” &c.

2. Adverbs of quality, and a few others, admit of comparison like adjectives; as, soon, sooner, soonest; nobly, more nobly, most nobly.—A few are compared irregularly; as, well, better, best; badly, or ill, worse, worst.

3. Some words become adverbs by prefixing *a*, which signifies *at*, or *on*; as, *abed*, *ashore*, *afoat*, *aground*, *apart*.

4. In comparisons, the antecedents *as* and *so* are usually reckoned adverbs, because they modify an adjective or another adverb; the corresponding *as* and *so* are conjunctions; thus, It is *as* high as Heaven.

5. The compounds of *here*, *there*, *where*; and *hither*, *thither*,

whither, are all adverbs; except therefore and wherefore, which are sometimes conjunctions.

6. Many words are used sometimes as adverbs, and sometimes as other parts of speech; thus,

Much is used, 1. As an adverb; as, It is *much* better to give than to receive.

————— 2. As an adjective; as, In *much* wisdom is *much* grief.

————— 3. As a noun; as, where *much* is given *much* is required.

Yesterday is used, 1. As an adverb; as, He came *yesterday*.

————— 2. As a noun; as, *Yesterday* is past.

Before is used, 1. As an adverb; as, He came *before* the door was opened.

————— 2. As a preposition; as, He stood *before* the door.

7. Circumstances of time, place, manner, &c. are often expressed by two or more words constituting an *adverbial phrase*; as, in short, in fine, in general, at most, at least, at length, not at all, by no means, in vain, in order, long ago, by and bye, to and fro, &c. which, taken together, may be parsed as adverbs, or by supplying the ellipsis; thus, *in a short space*; *in a general way*, &c.

EXERCISES ON ADVERBS, IRREGULAR VERBS, &c.

Peter wept bitterly. He is here now. She went away yesterday. They came to-day. They will perhaps bny some to-morrow. Ye shall know hereafter. She sung sweetly. Cats soon learn to catch mice. Mary rose up hastily. They that have enough may soundly sleep. Cain wickedly slew his brother. I saw him long ago. He is a very good man. Sooner or later all must die. You read too little. They talk too much. James acted wisely. How many lines can you repeat? You ran hastily. He speaks fluently. Then were they glad. He fell fast asleep. She should not hold her head awry. The ship was driven ashore. No, indeed. They are all alike. Let him that is athirst drink freely. The oftener you read with attention, the more you will improve.

§ 35. VII. OF PREPOSITIONS.

A **PREPOSITION** is a word which expresses the relation in which a substantive (noun or pronoun) stands to a verb, or to another substantive in the same sentence; as, "*Before* honour is humility;" They speak *concerning* virtue.

Words of this class are called *prepositions*, because they are usually placed *before* the nouns or pronouns to which they refer.

A LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.

To be got accurately by heart.

About	Before	From	Through
Above	Behind	In	Throughout
According to	Below	Into	Till
Across	Beneath	Instead of	To
After	Beside	Near	Touching
Against	Besides	Nigh	Towards
Along	Between	Of	Under
Amid }	Betwixt	Off	Underneath
Amidst }	Beyond	On	Unto
Among }	By	Over	Up
Amongst }	Concerning	Out of	Upon
Around	Down	Past	With
Aslant	During	Regarding	Within
At	Except	Respecting	Without
Athwart	Excepting	Round	
Bating	For	Since	

OBSERVATIONS ON PREPOSITIONS.

1. Every preposition requires an objective case after it.—When a preposition does not govern an objective case, it becomes an *adverb*; as, He rides *about*. But in such phrases as, cast up, hold out, fall on, the words *up*, *out*, *on*, must be considered as a part of the verbs, rather than as prepositions or adverbs.

2. Certain words are used sometimes as prepositions, and sometimes as adverbs; as, *till*, *until*, *after*, *before*, &c.

3. Some words in the above list of prepositions might, perhaps without impropriety, be classed with adverbs ; as, *near, nigh, &c.*, and the objective case which follows them, be governed by a preposition understood ; as, *near the house*, i. e. *near to the house*.—"Off the table," i. e. off from the table.

4. *Inseparable Prepositions* are certain particles never found by themselves, but always in composition with another word. Those purely English are, *a, be, fore, mis, un*.

EXERCISES CONTAINING PREPOSITIONS.

He went to town. His father resides in the country. He gave part of his dinner to a poor man in the street. They divided the inheritance among them. All rivers flow into the ocean. He was travelling towards Rome when they met him at Milan, without a single attendant. The coach was upset between Bristol and London on Wednesday last.

§ 36. VIII. CONJUNCTIONS.

A CONJUNCTION is a word which joins words and sentences together ; as, You *and* I must study, *but* he may go *and* play. Two *and* two make four.

A LIST OF CONJUNCTIONS.

1. *Copulative*—Also, and, because, both, for, if, since, that, then, therefore, wherefore.

2. *Disjunctive*—Although, as, as well as, but, either, except, lest, neither, nor, notwithstanding, or, provided, so, than, though, unless, whether, yet, still.

OBSERVATIONS.

It will be seen from the above list that the same word varies in its character according to its application : e. g. *both, either, neither, whether*, are sometimes adjective pronouns and sometimes conjunctions ; *that* is sometimes an adjective pronoun, sometimes a relative pronoun, (§ 18, 3, obs. 2,) as well as a conjunction ; *for, save, except*, are some-

times prepositions; *since* and *but* are sometimes conjunctions, sometimes prepositions, and sometimes adverbs; thus, "*since* (conj.) we must part, let us do it peaceably;" "I have not seen him *since* (prep.) that time;" "Our friendship commenced long *since*" (adv.); "He is poor *but* honest" (conj.); "All *but* one" (prep.); "He has *but* just enough." (adv.)

§ 37. IX. OF INTERJECTIONS.

AN INTERJECTION is a word which expresses some emotion of the speaker; as, *Oh!* what a sight is here! *Well done!*

A LIST OF INTERJECTIONS.

Adieu! ah! alas! alack! away! aha! begone! hark! ho! ha! he! hail! halloo! hum! hush! huzza! hist! hey-dey! lo! O! Oh! O strange! O brave! pshaw! see! well-a-day, &c.

OBSERVATIONS ON INTERJECTIONS.

1. Many words denominated interjections, are in fact nouns or verbs, employed in the rapidity of thought and expression, occasioned by strong emotion, to denote what would otherwise require more words to express; as *Adieu!* for "I commend you to God;" *Strange!* for "that is strange;" *Welcome!* for "you are welcome;" and hence any word or phrase may become an interjection, or be used as such, when it is expressed with emotion, and in an unconnected manner; as, *What!* Ungrateful creature! *Shocking!*

2. *O* is used to express wishing or exclamation, and should be prefixed only to a noun or pronoun, in a direct address; as, "*O* virtue! How amiable thou art." *Oh!* is used detached from the word, with a point of exclamation after it. It implies an emotion of pain, sorrow, or surprize; as, "*Oh!* what a sight is here."

§ 38. ON PARSING.

PARSING is the resolving of a sentence into its elements or *parts of speech*.

Accuracy and expertness in this exercise is an important acquisition,

and cannot be fully acquired without a knowledge of the rules of syntax. At the same time, in order to study the rules of syntax with advantage, and especially to be able readily to correct the exercises in false syntax, under each rule, considerable proficiency in parsing is necessary. The pupil must be able at once to distinguish the different parts of speech from each other, and to tell the different cases, moods, tenses, &c. in which a word is found, and to change it readily into any other that may be required.

In proceeding to parse a sentence it is necessary for the pupil in the first place to *understand it*. When he understands a sentence, and also the definition of the different parts of speech given in the grammar, he will not find much difficulty in ascertaining to which of them each word belongs; i. e. which of the words are “names of things,” or *nouns*; which “express the quality of things,” or, “affirm any thing concerning them,” that is to say, which words are *adjectives*, and which are *verbs*. This method will exercise the discriminating powers of the pupil better, engage his attention much more, and on trial be found much more easy and certain, than that of consulting his dictionary on every occasion—a plan always laborious, often unsatisfactory, and which, instead of leading him to exercise his own powers, and depend on his own resources, will lead him to habits of slavish dependence on the authority of others.

The following *General principles* should be remembered, and steadily kept in view in parsing every sentence, viz :

1. Every adjective expresses the quality of some noun or pronoun expressed or understood.

2. The subject of a verb, i. e. the thing spoken of, is always in the nominative, and is said to be the “nominative to the verb.”

3. Every noun or pronoun, in the nominative case, is the subject of a verb, expressed or understood, i. e. it is that of which the verb affirms. To this there are a few exceptions.

4. Every verb in the indicative, potential, or subjunctive mood has a nominative or subject expressed or understood, i. e. it has something of which it affirms.

5. Every transitive verb in the active voice, and every preposition, governs a noun or pronoun in the objective case ; and every objective case is governed by an active transitive verb, or preposition.

6. Every verb in the infinitive mood is governed by a verb or adjective. Sometimes by a noun ; and sometimes it stands after the conjunction, *than* or *as*. See § 67.

§ 39. SPECIMENS OF PARSING.*

“Truth and candor possess a powerful charm.”

Previous to parsing this sentence, it may be analyzed to the young pupil by such questions as the following, viz: What is spoken of in this sentence? Truth and candor. What is said of them? They possess something. What do they possess? A charm. What sort of a charm do they possess? A powerful charm. The sentence being understood, may be parsed briefly thus :

“Truth,” A noun, neuter, singular, the nominative.

“And,” A conjunction, connecting “truth” with
“candor.”

“Candor,” A noun, neuter, singular, the nominative.

“Possess,” A verb transitive, present, indicative, active,—third person, plural.

“A,” The indefinite article.

“Powerful,” An adjective, positive degree, qualifying “charm,” compared by more and most ; as, more powerful, most powerful.

* In parsing, the pupil should be required to state every thing belonging to the etymology of each word in *as few words as possible*, and without waiting to have every thing drawn from him by questions from his teacher, this will save much time and unnecessary labor. It will also contribute much to order and precision, to have every thing respecting each part of speech expressed always in the same order and in the same language. The following specimens are given as an example

"Charm," a noun, neuter, singular, the objective.

Note.—It will also be a profitable exercise to require a reason for every thing stated in parsing a word, as for example, Why do you say that "Truth" is a noun? is neuter?—singular?—the nominative? To which questions it may be answered, Because it is the *name* of a thing—is *without* sex—denotes but *one*, and (together with candor) is the *subject* or nominative of the verb "possess;" or, is the thing spoken of. See note § 12. This exercise should be continued till the pupil is able to answer all such questions on any of the parts of speech promptly and intelligently.

All the parts of speech are contained in the following stanza. The words in the parentheses may be omitted till the pupil has got the rules of Syntax.

O how stupendous was the power
That raised me with a word;
And every day, and every hour,
I lean upon the Lord.

O, an interjection—*how*, an adverb—*stupendous*, an adjective, in the positive degree, compared by more and most; as stupendous, more stupendous, most stupendous,—*was*, a verb intr., third person singular, imperfect, indicative, (agreeing with its nominative *power* here put after it)—*the*, an article, the definite,—*power*, a noun, neuter, singular, the nominative,—*That*, a relative pronoun, neuter, singular, the nominative, here used for *which*; its antecedent is *power*—*raised*, a verb, trans. imperf. indic., active, third person, singular, (agreeing with its nominative *that*)—*me*, the first personal pronoun, masculine, or feminine, singular, the objective, (governed by *raised*)—*with*, a preposition—*a*, an article, the indefinite—*word*, a noun, neuter, singular, the objective (governed by *with*)—*And*, a conjunction—*every*, a distributive pronoun—*day*, a noun, neuter, singular, the objective, (because the preposition *through* or *during*, is understood, or, obj restrictive § 50.)—*hour*, a noun, neuter, singular, the objective (because *day* was in it, and conjunctions couple the same cases of nouns, &c.) *I*, the first personal pronoun, masculine, or feminine, singular, the nominative—*lean*, a verb intr., first person singular, present, indicative—*upon*, a preposition—*the*, an article, the definite—*Lord*, a noun, masculine, singular, the objective, (governed by *upon*.)

§ 40. EXERCISES IN PARSING.*

RULE 1. *Two or more adjectives following each other, either with or without a conjunction, qualify the same word ; as,*

A wise and faithful servant will always study his master's interest. A dismal, dense, and portentous cloud overhangs the city. A steady, sweet, and cheerful temper affords great delight to its possessor. He has bought a fine new coat. A sober and virtuous course of conduct generally leads to happiness. Virtuous youth brings forth accomplished and flourishing manhood. She had the advantage of a regular and polite education.

RULE 2. *When an adjective precedes two nouns, it generally qualifies them both : as,*

They waited for a *fit time* and *place*. I am delighted with the sight of green woods and fields. He displayed great prudence and moderation. He was a man of great wisdom and moderation. Guard against rash temper and conduct. They shewed sincere respect and esteem for their friends.

RULE 3. *When an adjective comes after a verb intrans., it generally qualifies the nominative of that verb ; as,*

John is wise. They were temperate. The sky is very clear. These rivers are deep and rapid. The apples will soon be ripe. We have been attentive to our lessons. These mountains are very high. The sea is tempestuous. Our friends should be dear to us. His behaviour was entirely inconsistent. The Supreme being is wise and good. Their pictures and books are valuable. John's schemes were absurd.

RULE 4. *Whatever words the verb TO BE serves to unite referring to the same thing, must be of the same case ; § 61, as,*

Alexander is a student. Mary is a beautiful painter. Hope is the balm of life. Content is a great blessing, envy a great curse. Knowledge is power. His meat was locusts and wild honey. He was the life of the company.

* The rules in this section are not intended to be committed to memory, but to be used as directions to the beginner in parsing the exercises under them.

She will be the delight of her friends. Milton is the prince of English poets. Shakspeare was a man of unbounded genius. Johnson was a powerful writer. Contentment is great gain. He might be a most happy man. I understood it to be him. I took it to be them. I supposed it to have been them.—They imagined it to be me.

Note.—It is necessary to the application of this rule, that the words connected refer to the same thing. This connexion is often made by other words than the verb *to be*.—See § 61, Rem 1.

RULE 5. *Nouns and pronouns succeeding each other, and denoting the same object, are said to be in APPPOSITION, and always agree in case ; as,*

Alexander the coppersmith, was not a friend to the Apostle Paul. Hope, the balm of life, is our greatest friend. Thomson, the author of the Seasons, is a delightful poet. Temperance, the best preserver of health, should be the study of all men. He greatly displeased his friend Cato. We received the orders from the Duke of Wellington, commander-in-chief. Religion and Virtue, our best support, and highest honour, confer on the mind principles of noble independence.

NOTE.—In parsing such sentences as the above, a relative and a verb may be inserted between the words in apposition. *Myself, thyself, himself, &c.*, often stand at a considerable distance from the words with which they agree ; as,

Thomas despatched the letter himself. They gathered the flowers in the garden themselves. Ann saw the transaction herself, and could not be mistaken.

RULE 6. *Myself, thyself, himself, &c., often form the objectives of active verbs, of which the words they represent are the subjects or nominatives. They are in such cases generally called Reflexive pronouns ; as,*

I hurt myself. He wronged himself, to oblige us. They will support themselves by their industry. She endeavored to shew herself off to advantage. We must confine ourselves more to our studies. They hurt themselves by their great anxiety.

RULE 7. *Adjectives, taken as nouns, and used in reference to persons, are generally of the plural number ; as,*

The valiant never taste of death but once. The virtuous are generally the most happy. The diligent make

most improvement. The sincere are always esteemed. The inquisitive are generally talkative. The dissipated are much to be pitied. The company of the profane should be carefully avoided. The temperate are generally the most healthy.

RULE 8. *Nouns and pronouns, taken in the same connexion, must be of the same case ; as,*

The master taught *him* and *me* to write. He and she were school-fellows. My brother and he are tolerable grammarians. He gave the book to John and Thomas. I lent my knife and pencil to one of the scholars. Peter and John gained the highest prizes. The snow and the ice have quite disappeared. Exercise and temperance are the best promoters of health.

RULE 9. *A relative generally precedes the verb that governs it ; as,*

He is a friend *whom* I greatly *respect*. They *whom* luxury has corrupted, cannot relish the simple pleasures of life. The books *which* I bought yesterday I have not yet received. The trees *which* he planted in the spring have all died. He has lost the friend *whom* he so much respected. He is a person *whom* all must admire. The lesson *which* we have finished, has not been difficult.

RULE 10. *When both a relative and its antecedent have each a verb belonging to it, the relative is commonly the nominative to the first verb, and the antecedent to the second ; as,*

He *who* acts wisely **DESERVES** praise. He *who* is a stranger to industry, may possess, but he cannot enjoy. They *who* are born in high stations are not always the most happy. The man *who* is faithfully attached to religion, may be relied on with confidence. Those *who* excite envy will easily incur censure. He *that* overcomes his passions, conquers his greatest enemies.

RULE 11. *What, being equal to that which, or the thing which, may represent two cases, either both nominative or both objective ; or, the one nominative and the other objective ; as,*

This is precisely *what* was necessary. *What* cannot be prevented, must be endured. We must not delay till to-morrow, *what* ought to be done to-day. Choose *what* is

most fit ; custom will make it the most agreeable. Foolish men are more apt to consider what they have lost than what they possess. What he gained by diligence, he squandered by extravagance.

RULE 12. *Whoever and whosoever, used as relatives (§ 16, Obs. 3,) generally have the antecedent implied, so that they seem to stand as the nominative to two verbs, or as at once the objective after a verb or preposition and the nominative of a succeeding verb. The same is the case with whatever and whatsoever ; as,*

Whoever told such a story, *must have been* misinformed. *Whoever is* not content in poverty, *would not be* perfectly happy in the midst of plenty. *Whoever passes* his time in idleness, *can make* but little improvement. *Whatever gives* pain to others, *deserves not* the name of pleasure. *Whatever is* worth doing at all, *is worth* doing well.

NOTE.—*Whatever* is most frequently used, as *what* sometimes is, (§ 16, Obs. 2.) simply to qualify a noun ; as,

Aspire at perfection, in *whatever state* of life you may be placed. I forget what words he uttered. By what means shall we obtain wisdom. By *whatever arts* we may attract attention, we can secure esteem only by amiable dispositions.

RULE 13. *Participles, though they never directly declare, yet always imply something either done or doing ; and are used in reference to some noun or pronoun ; as,*

Admired and applauded, he became vain. Having finished our lessons, we went to play. Proceeding on his journey, he was seized with a dangerous malady. Being engaged at the time of my call, he had not a moment to spend with me. Having early disgraced himself, he became mean and dispirited. Knowing him to be my superior, I cheerfully submitted.

RULE 14. *The perfect participle of a few intr. verbs is sometimes joined to the verb to be, which gives such verbs a passive appearance ; as,*

I am come, in compliance with your desire. If such maxims and practices prevail, what is become of decency and virtue ? The old house is at length fallen down. John is gone to London.

RULE 15. *Intransitives are often followed by prepositions, making what are sometimes called compound trans. verbs. The verb and preposition may in such cases be parsed, either together or separately in the active voice. In the passive voice they must be parsed together ; as,*

He laughed at such folly. They smiled upon us in such a way as to inspire courage. He struck at his friend with great violence. He was sadly laughed at for such conduct.

RULE 16. *A noun or pronoun is often used with a participle, without being connected in grammatical construction with any other words of the sentence. It is then called the nominative absolute ; as,*

The father being dead, the whole estate came into the hands of the eldest son. He destroyed, or won to what may work his utter loss, all this will soon follow. Whose gray top shall tremble, he descending. The house being built and finished, he was expected to take immediate possession. The sun rising, darkness flies away. Our work being finished, we will play.

RULE 17. *To, the sign of the infinitive, is omitted after the verbs bid, dare, need, make, see, hear, feel, and let ; and sometimes after perceive, behold, observe, have, know, &c. as.*

Let me look at your portrait. He bade me go with him. I heard him assert the opinion. I like to see you behave so well. Let him apply to his books, and then he will make improvement. Let us make all the haste in our power. I saw him ride past at great speed. I have observed some satirists use the term.

RULE 18. *Verbs connected by conjunctions, are usually in the same mood and tense ; but in the compound tenses the sign is often used with the first only and understood with the rest ; as,*

He can neither read nor write. He shall no longer tease and vex me as he has done. He commanded them that they should not depart from Jerusalem, but wait for the promise of the father. His diligence should have been commended and rewarded. Every mind, in its present state, is obliged to receive information, and execute its purposes, by the intervention of the body. Fame cannot spread wide, or endure long, that is not rooted in nature. and matured by art.

RULE 19. *Nouns and pronouns, and especially words denoting time, are often governed by prepositions understood; or are used to restrict verbs or adjectives without a governing word, § 50. Rem. 6 and Rule; as,*

He gave (to) me a full account of the whole affair. Will you lend *me* your knife. It is not time yet to go *home*. He returned home at a very inconvenient season. He travelled last summer as far as London on foot. He was in Paris last month. He visited Rome last year in the spring. They remained twenty-four days at Naples, and walked twelve miles each day. I sent him the despatches some time ago.

RULE 20. *The conjunctions than and as, implying comparison, have the same case after them as before them; and the latter case has the same construction as the former; as,*

He has more books than my brother (has.) *Mary* is not so handsome as her sister (is.) They respect *him* more than (they respect) *us*. James is not so diligent as Thomas. They are much greater gainers than I by this unexpected event. Though she is not so learned as he, she is as much beloved and respected. These people are not so proud as he, nor so vain as she.

RULE 21. *The class of words or part of speech to which a word belongs, depends often on its application; as,*

Calm was the day and the scene delightful. We may expect a *calm* after a storm. To prevent passion is easier than to calm it. Better is a little with content, than a great deal with anxiety. The gay and dissolute think little of the miseries which are stealing softly after them. A little attention will rectify some errors. Though he is out of danger he is still afraid. He laboured to still the tumult. Still waters are commonly deepest. Damp air is unwholesome. Guilt often casts a damp over our sprightliest hours. Soft bodies damp the sound much more than hard ones. Though she is rich and fair, yet she is not amiable. They are young, and must suspend their judgment yet a while. Many persons are better than we suppose them to be. The few and the many have their prepossessions. Few days pass without some clouds. Much money is corrupting. Think much and

He has seen much of the world and been much caressed. His years are more than hers, but he has not more knowledge. The more we are blessed the more grateful we should be. The desire of getting more is rarely satisfied. He has equal knowledge, but inferior judgment. She is his inferior in sense but his equal in prudence.

RULE 22. *Do, have and be, are principal verbs when used by themselves, but auxiliaries when connected with other verbs ; as,*

He *does* all in his power to gain esteem. He *did* his utmost to please his friend. We *must* do nothing that will sully our reputation. She has a strong claim to our respect. They *had* not the slightest intention to wound our feelings. The man who has no sense of religion is little to be trusted. He who *does* the most good has the most pleasure. They *were* not in the most prosperous circumstances when we last saw them. He *does* not write so well as he reads. We *did* not stay with him above a month. True wisdom *does* not inspire pride. The butler *did* not remember Joseph. *Did* he send the book, as he was desired? *Do* they make much progress in their studies? Have they ascertained the person who gave the information? They *had* not determined what course to take. We are surprised at the news.

RULE 23. *An infinitive, a participle, or a member of a sentence, which may be called a substantive phrase, is often the nominative to a verb, or the objective after a trans. verb or preposition ; as,*

1. *Nominative.* To study hard is the best way to improve. To endure misfortune with resignation is the characteristic of a great mind. To advise the ignorant, relieve the needy and comfort the distressed, are duties incumbent on all. John's being from home occasioned the delay. His having neglected opportunities of improvement, was the cause of his disgrace. The implanting of right principles in the breast of the young, is important both to themselves and to society. The assisting of a friend in such circumstances was certainly a duty.

2. *Objective.* He that knows how to do good and does it not, is without excuse. He will regret his having ne-

glected opportunities of improvement when it may be too late. He declared that nothing could give him greater pleasure. Of making many books there is no end. You will never repent of having done your duty.

Obs. 1. When a substantive phrase is governed by a verb or preposition, this regimen does not affect the case of individual nouns or pronouns in that phrase, but leaves them subject to the influence of other words within the phrase itself.

Obs. 2. In sentences of this kind, the infinitive mood and participle are often used for the *name* of the action, or state, or affection expressed by the verb; as, "*To profess (professing)* regard, and *to act (acting)* differently, mark a base mind." Here it is to be observed that the infinitive and participle are really *abstract nouns* perfectly indefinite in their application, there being no particular subject to which the action may be referred.

If the infinitive or participle of the verb *to be*, or of a passive verb of naming, &c. (§ 61, R. 1.) is used in this way without a definite subject, the substantive which follows it as a predicate receives the same indefinite character; it is neither the subject of a verb nor is under the regimen of any word; Thus, "His *being* an expert *dancer* does not entitle him to our regard." This will be allowed to be a correct English sentence, complete in itself, and requiring nothing to be supplied. The phrase, "*being an expert dancer*," is the subject of the verb, "*does entitle*;" but the word "*dancer*" in that phrase is neither the subject of any verb, nor is governed by any word in the sentence. Of this kind are all such expressions as the following: "It is an honour *to be* the *author* of such a work." "*To be* virtuous is *to be* happy." "*To be* surety for a stranger is dangerous." "Not to know what happened before you were born, is *to be* always a *child*." "The atrocious crime of *being* a young *man*, I shall neither attempt to palliate or deny." (Pitt.) "He was not sure of its *being* me." "Its *being* me needs make no difference in your determination."

If the last two examples are correct, they shew that whether the *phrase* is the nominative or objective, i. e. whether it is the subject of a verb or is governed by a trans. verb or preposition; the word following the infinitive or participle as a predicate is properly in the *objective case*,* and in parsing, may correctly be called the *objective in-*

* This corresponds to the Latin and Greek idiom in such sentences as the following: "Nescire quid acciderit antequam natus es, est semper *esse puerum*."—Not to know what happened in past years, is *to be* always a child—

definite. Or the whole phrase may be parsed as one word. (§ 61, Rem. 2.) The following are also examples.

He had the honour of being a director for life. By being a diligent student, he soon acquired eminence in his profession. Many benefits result to men from being wise and temperate (men.)

RULE 24. *It, often refers to persons, (§ 15, Obs. 5,) or to an infinitive coming after; as,*

It is John that is to blame. It was I that wrote the letter. It is the duty of all to improve. It is the business of every man to prepare for death. It was reserved for Newton to discover the law of gravitation. It is easy to form good resolutions, but difficult to put them in practice. It is incumbent on the young to love and honour their parents.

RULE 25. *Words, especially in poetry, are often much transposed; as,*
Great is Diana of the Ephesians. On yourself depend for aid. Happy the man who puts his trust in his maker. Of night the gloom was dark and dense.

Or where the gorgeous east, with richest hand
Showers on her kings barbaric, pearls and gold.

No hive hast thou of hoarded sweets.

A transient calm the happy scenes bestow

When first thy sire to send on earth

Virtue, his darling child, designed.

On flattering appearances put no reliance.

He with vine crown advancing,

First to the lively pipe his hand addressed.

Grieved though thou art, forbear the rash design.

Not half so dreadful rises to the sight

Orion's dog, the year when Autumn weighs.

§ 41. PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES IN PARSING.

The world was made by a Supreme Being. He who made it now preserves and governs it. Nothing happens without his permission. He sees all our actions and hears

ἔστι τῶν αἰσχυρῶν . . . τόπων, ὧν ἤμην ποτε κύριοι φαίνεσθαι προΐεμένους.
"It is a shame to be seen giving up countries of which we were once masters."

—DEMOSTHENES.

all our words. The thoughts of the heart are known to him. In him we live, he gave us life, and without him we cannot breathe. Wherever we are, God is with us. When we sit in the house God is there; and when we walk by the way, he is at our right hand. He is a spirit, and fills heaven and earth with his presence.

Demosthenes, who was born at Athens, was a very famous orator. He acquired the art of speaking by great labor and study. By nature he had not a good voice, and could not rightly pronounce some words. That he might learn to speak distinctly, he put small round pebbles in his mouth while he spoke, in order to cure his defect. He used to shut himself up in his chamber, and to study a whole month together. He often went to the shore, and pronounced his orations to the waves, that he might be better able to endure the noise and clamor of the people. He made many orations both on private and public occasions. But he used his eloquence chiefly against Philip, king of Macedon, and, in several orations, he stirred up the Athenians to make war against him.

The mimic thrush, or mocking bird, is about the size of a blackbird, but somewhat more slender. The plumage is grey, but paler on the under parts than above.

It is common in some parts of America and in Jamaica; but changes its place in summer, being then seen much more to the northward than in winter. It cannot vie with the feathered inhabitants of those countries in brilliancy of plumage; but is content with much more rare and estimable qualities. It possesses not only natural notes of its own, which are truly musical and solemn, but it can at pleasure assume the tone of every other animal in the forest, from the humming bird to the eagle, descending even to the wolf or raven. One of them confined in a cage has been heard to mimic the chattering of a magpie, and the creaking of the hinges of a sign-post in high winds.

This capricious little mimic seems to have a singular pleasure in archly leading other birds astray. He is said at one time to allure the smaller birds with the call of their mates; and when these come near, to terrify them with the scream of the eagle. There is scarcely a bird of the forest, that is not at some time deceived by his call.

THE POPLAR FIELD.

The poplars are fell'd, farewell to the shade,
And the whispering sound of the cool colonade,
The winds play no longer and sing in the leaves,
Nor Ouse in his bosom their image receives.

Twelve years have elapsed since I last took a view
Of my favorite field, and the bank where they grew;
And now in the grass, behold they are laid,
And the tree is my seat, that once lent me shade.

The blackbird has fled to another retreat,
Where the hazels afford him a screen from the heat;
And the scene, where his melody charmed me before,
Resounds with his sweet-flowing ditty no more.

My fugitive years are all hastening away,
And I must ere long lie as lowly as they,
With a turf on my breast, and a stone at my head,
Ere another such grove shall arise in its stead.

Note.—For additional exercises in parsing, any simple correct writer may be used by those who are less advanced; and for the more advanced student nothing better can be supplied than Pope's *Essay on Man* or Milton's *Paradise Lost*.

PART III.

§ 43. SYNTAX.

SYNTAX is that part of Grammar which treats of the proper arrangement and connexion of words in a sentence.

A *sentence* is such an assemblage of words as makes complete sense ; as, *Man is mortal*.

A *phrase* is two or more words rightly put together, but not making complete sense ; as, *In truth* ; *To be plain with you*.

Sentences are of two kinds, *Simple* and *Compound*.

A *Simple* sentence contains but one subject and one finite* verb ; as, *Life is short*.

A *Compound* sentence contains two or more simple sentences combined ; as, *Life, which is short, should be well employed*.

Every simple sentence or proposition consists of two parts, the *subject* and the *predicate*.

The *subject* is the thing chiefly spoken of. In English it is always the nominative to the verb.

The *predicate* is the thing affirmed or denied of the subject. It is either contained in the verb itself, as, "*John reads*," or it follows the verb *to be*, or some other verb of like import, which in this case is called the *copula* ; as, "*Time is short*." "*They became poor*." If the predicate contains an active verb, the *object* of the action expressed by it follows in the objective case. Neuter verbs have no object.

The subject or nominative, the verb and the object, may each be attended by other words called *adjuncts*, which serve to modify or restrict the meaning of the word with which they stand connected ; as,

* A finite verb is a verb restricted by *person* and *number*. All verbs are finite in the indicative, Potential, Subjunctive, and Imperative ; but not in the Infinitive and Participles.

“An inordinate *desire* of admiration often *produces* a contemptible *levity* of deportment.”

When a compound sentence is so framed that the meaning is suspended till the whole be finished, it is called a *Period*; otherwise the sentence is said to be *loose*.

§ 44. GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF SYNTAX.

1. In every sentence there must be a *verb* and a *nominative* (or subject) expressed or understood.

2. Every *article*, adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle, must have a substantive expressed or understood.

3. Every nominative has its own verb expressed or understood.

4. Every verb (except in the infinitive and participles) has its own nominative expressed or understood.

5. Every possessive case is governed by some noun denoting the thing possessed.

6. Every objective case is governed by an active verb or preposition.

7. The infinitive mood is governed by a verb, an adjective or substantive.

OBS. The exceptions to these general principles will appear in the Rules of Syntax.

§ 45. PARTS OF SYNTAX.

The Rules of Syntax may all be included under three heads, *Concord*, *Government* and *Position*.

Concord is the agreement which one word has with another in gender, number, case, or person.

Government is that power which one word has in directing the mood, tense, or case of another word.

Position means the place which a word occupies in a sentence.

In the English language, which has but few inflections, the meaning of a sentence depends much on the position of the words which it contains.

§ 46. RULE I. *A Verb must agree with its nominative in number and person*; as, Thou readest, He reads, We read.

Note 1. The nominative to a verb is known by putting the question *Who?* or, *What?* with the verb. The answer to the question will be the nominative; as, "*I read.*" Who reads? Ans. *I*.

Note 2. Under this rule the General Principles § 44, 3, 4, must be carefully observed. For, *as follows*, *as concerns*, *as appears*, &c. See § 86, 3.

EXERCISES.

I loves reading. A soft answer *turn* away wrath. We is but of yesterday and know nothing. The days of man is but as grass. Thou sees how little has been done. He need not proceed in such haste. He dare not act otherwise. Fifty pounds of wheat contains forty pounds of flour. A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye. Sc much both of ability and merit are seldom found. Nothing but vain and foolish pursuits delight some persons. A judicious arrangement of studies facilitate improvement. A few pangs of conscience now and then interrupts his pleasure, and whispers to him that he once had better thoughts. There was more impostors than one. What signifies good opinions when our practice is bad? To these precepts are subjoined a copious selection of rules and maxims.

In vain our flocks and fields increase our store,
When our abundance make us wish for more.

The number of our days are with thee. There remains two points to be considered. There is in fact no impersonal verbs in any language. I have considered what have been said on both sides. Great pains has been taken to make this work as useful as possible. In piety and virtue consist the happiness of man. You was not at home when the servant called. Thomas where wast you when I called. § 15, Obs. 4.

In order to exercise the judgment of the pupil, as well as to shew that he understands the rule, he may be required to assign a reason for the changes made in correcting the exercises under this and the following rules. If well versed in parsing, this may be done without loss of time, even in a large class, by directing him to state the reason always, without waiting to be asked for it. Thus in the above exercises, "*Loves*" should be "*love*," because "*I*" is the 1st pers. sing. "*Turn*" should be "*turns*," because "*answer*" is the 3d pers. sing. &c.

§ 47. SPECIAL RULES AND OBSERVATIONS UNDER RULE 1.

RULE I. *The subject of a verb should be in the nominative; as, He and she are of the same age; not, Him and her.*

RULE II. *The Infinitive mood or part of a sentence is often used as the nominative to a verb; as, To play is pleasant; His being at enmity with Cæsar, was the cause of perpetual discord.*

RULE III. *A noun singular used for a plural is joined to a plural verb; as, Ten sail of the line were seen at a distance. (§ 10, 4 note.)*

Note. Nouns plural in form but singular in signification, may be joined either with a singular or plural verb. § 10, 5.

RULE IV. *A noun and its pronoun should never be used as a nominative to the same verb; as, The king is just; not, the king he is just. Except that himself, herself, &c. are joined with a noun or pronoun rendering it emphatic. § 15, Obs. 2.*

RULE V. *When the verb TO BE stands between a singular and plural nominative, it agrees with the one next it, or the one which is more naturally the subject of it; as, The wages of sin is death.*

EXERCISES ON PRECEDING RULES.

I. Him and I are able to do it. You and us enjoy many privileges. I thought you and them had become friends. If you were here, you would find three or four, whom you would say pass their time very agreeably. Whom shall be sent to admonish him?

II. To live soberly, righteously and godly are required of all men. To do unto others as we would that they should do unto us, constitute the great principle of virtue. A fondness for distinction often render a man ridiculous.

III. Forty head of cattle was grazing in yonder meadow. Twelve brace of pigeons was sold for a dollar. One pair were spoiled; five pair was in good condition.

IV. Simple and innocent pleasures they alone are durable. My banks they are furnished with bees. This rule if it had been observed, a neighboring prince would have wanted a great deal of that incense which has been offered up to him. John, he said so, and Thomas, he said so, and the rest of them, they all said so. Man that is born of a woman he is of few days and full of trouble.

V. A great cause of the low state of industry was the restraints put upon it. His meat were locusts and wild honey. The crown of virtue is peace and honour.

§ 48. RULE II. *A transitive verb, in the active voice, governs the objective case; as, We love him. He loves us. Whom did they send?*

Obs. An intransitive verb sometimes becomes transitive, (§ 21, *Obs.* 2,) and governs the objective case of a noun of the same or kindred signification; as, "Let us *run* the *race*." With this construction, may be classed such expressions as the following:—"The brooks ran nectar." "The trees wept gums and balm." "Her lips blush deeper sweets." "They ascended the mountain."

Remark 1. The participle, being a part of the verb, governs the same case.

Rem. 2. When the objective is a relative or interrogative, it comes before the verb that governs it. § 40, R. 9. (Murray's 6th rule is unnecessary.)

Rem. 3. The infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, as well as a noun or pronoun, may be the object of a transitive active verb; as, Boys love *to play*; I wish *that they were wise*. You see *how few men have returned*.

Rem. 4. As substantives have no distinct form of the objective case, the arrangement of the sentence should clearly distinguish the one case from the other. The nominative generally precedes the verb; the objective follows it; but when the objective is a relative or interrogative, it precedes both the verb and its nominative. The objective should not, if possible, be separated from its verb.

EXERCISES.

He loves I. He and they we know, but who art thou She that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply. Ye only have I known. Let thou and I the battle try. He who committed the offence, thou shouldst correct; not I who am innocent.

(R. 1.) Esteeming themselves wise, they became fools. Upon seeing I, he turned pale. Having exposed his self to the fire of the enemy, he soon lost an arm in the action.

(R. 2.) The man who he raised from obscurity, is dead. Who did they entertain so freely? They are the persons who we ought to respect. Who having not seen, we love. They who opulence has made proud, and who luxury has corrupted, are not happy. Who do I love so much? Who should I meet the other day but my old friend? Who shall I pay for this service?

(R. 4.) *Faulty Arrangement*.—This is the man, he believed, whom he would send on that business. Becket could not better discover, than by attacking so powerful an interest, his resolution to maintain his right.

§ 49. SPECIAL RULES UNDER RULE II.

I. *Intransitive verbs never have an objective case after them* ; thus, "Repenting *him* of his design," should be "repenting of his design."

II. *Intransitive verbs do not admit a passive voice*, (§ 19. 5.) *except the nominative be of the same, or kindred signification with the verb itself* ; as, *My race is run*.

III. *Transitive verbs do not admit a preposition after them*, thus, "I must premise *with* three circumstances," should be, "I must premise three circumstances."

Obs. Verbs signifying to ask, teach, offer, promise, pay, tell, allow, deny, and some others, sometimes in colloquial language have an objective case after the passive voice ; as, I was taught *Grammar*. This may also be expressed *actively* ; as, He taught (to) me *Grammar* ; or *passively*, *Grammar* was taught (to) me.

IV. *A noun and its pronoun should not be used as the objective after the same verb or preposition*.

EXERCISES.

I. The king found reason to repent him of such dangerous enemies. They did not fail to enlarge themselves on the subject. Go flee thee away into the land of Judea. It will be difficult to agree his conduct with the principles he professes. "Then having showed his wounds, he'd sit him down."

II. This person was entered into a conspiracy against his master. Fifty men are deserted from the army. The influence of this corrupt example was then entirely ceased. My father was returned yesterday.

III. I shall premise with two or three general observations. He ingratiates with some, by traducing others. We ought to disengage from the world by degrees. He will not allow of it. They shall not want for encouragement. The covetous man pursues after gain.

(Obs.) *Change the following sentences into the forms specified in the Obs.*—A few questions were asked at the witness. A ship was promised to him in a few weeks. A pardon was offered (to) him. Great liberty was allowed (to) me. That was told (to) him some time ago. She would not accept the jewels, though they were offered to her by her mother.

§ 50. RULE III. *Prepositions govern the objective case; as, To whom much is given, of him much shall be required.*

Remark 1. Prepositions should be placed before the words which they govern, and as near to them as possible; but never before the relative *that*.

Remark 2. *Whom* and *which* are sometimes governed by a preposition at some distance after them; but this is at least inelegant, and should be avoided in composition.

Remark 3. The preposition, with its regimen, should be placed as near as possible to the word to which it is related.

Remark 4. A preposition should never be used before the infinitive.

Remark 5. It is generally inelegant and improper to connect a preposition and an active verb with the same word; as, I wrote *to*, and *warned him* of his danger.

Remark 6. The preposition is often omitted; as, Give (to) me the book; do it (in) your own way; I wrote (to) you long ago; like (unto) his father. Many cases of supposed ellipsis, however, may be better disposed of under the following

RULE. *A noun denoting time, place, price, weight, or measure, is sometimes used in the objective, without a governing word, to restrict the meaning of a verb or adjective with which it stands connected; as, He was absent six months.—Let us go home.—It cost a penny, but it is not worth a farthing. The parcel weighs a pound. The wall is six feet high.*

This may be called the objective case *restrictive*.

EXERCISES.

To who will you give that pen? Will you go with him and I? Withhold not good from they to who it is due. With who do you live? Great friendship subsists between he and I. He laid the suspicion on somebody, I know not who, in the company. (Rem. 1.) Who do you speak to? Who did they ride with? It was not he that they were angry with. To have no one who we are warmly concerned for, is a deplorable state. 2. It was not he that they were so angry with. The book which the story is printed in, is full of fiction. 3. The embarrassments of the artificers rendered the progress very slow of the work. Beyond this period, the arts cannot be traced of civil society. 4. What went ye out for to see? Can you give me wax for to seal this letter? He set out for to go home an hour ago. 5. He was afraid of, and wished to shun them. He claimed and insisted upon his rights. 6 Will you have the goodness to lend to me your grammar? I will return it on to-morrow

§ 51. RULE IV. *Two or more nouns in the singular, taken in connexion, require a verb and pronoun in the plural; as, 1. Cato and Cicero were learned men, and they loved their country. 2. Honour, justice, religion itself, are derided by the profligate. 3. The king, with the lords and commons, constitute the English form of government.*

Observation 1. Nouns are viewed in connexion when they stand together as the nominative to the same verb, not separately, but combined, forming a plural subject, i. e. a subject consisting of more things than one. Sometimes they are joined by the conjunction "*and*," as in the first example; sometimes they are without a conjunction, as in the 2d; and sometimes the connexion is formed by the preposition "*with*," as in the 3d. But in this case, the verb, &c. should be plural, only when the words connected by "*with*" essentially belong to the subject. When not essential, but a mere accompaniment, the verb should be singular; as, the ship, with her cargo, was lost.

Obs. 2. But when two names are used to represent one subject, the verb may be in the singular; as, Why is dust and ashes proud.

Obs. 3. When *comparison* is expressed or implied, and not *combination*, the verb should be singular; as, Cæsar, as well as Cicero, was remarkable for eloquence.

EXERCISES.

Patience and diligence, like faith, removes mountains. Life and death is in the power of the tongue. Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the golden mediocrity. Anger, and impatience is always unreasonable. His politeness and good disposition was, on failure of their effect, entirely changed. By whose power all good and evil is distributed. Luxurious living and high pleasures, begets a languor and satiety that destroys all enjoyment. Out of the same mouth proceedeth blessing and cursing. Leisure of life and tranquillity of mind, which fortune and your own wisdom has given you, is capable of being better employed. Time and tide waits for no man.

(Obs. 2.) That able scholar and critic have been eminently useful. Your friend and patron, whose name I have forgotten, have just now been enquiring for you.

(Obs. 3.) I, as well as they, are entitled to redress. Perseverance, as well as talents and application, are necessary to eminence in literary pursuits. But he, as well as Lord Clive, have been harshly judged by men, who have listened to their enemies.

§ 52. *RULE V. Two or more nouns in the singular, taken separately, have the verb or pronoun in the singular; as, John, James, or Andrew, intends to accompany you.*

Remark.—Nouns are viewed separately, when, though they all stand as the nominative to the verb, yet either one, exclusive of all the rest, is the subject of discourse, as in the above example, or, though all are equally the subject of discourse, yet they are not so in combination, but *individually*. In this case the verb agrees with the last, and is understood to the rest.

Obs.—Sometimes, however, when the verb affirms, and more especially when it denies, of the different nominatives, though they be disjoined by the conjunction, it may be put in the plural; as, Neither you nor I are in fault. This corresponds to the Latin construction, “*Id neque ego neque tu fecimus.*”—*Ter. Hec.*—*Crombie's English Syntax*, p. 237.

Separation is usually marked by the disjunctives *or* and *nor*, expressed or understood, or by prefixing *each* or *every*. But *each* and *every*, subjoined distributively to a plural subject, do not affect the verb; as, They have conspired each to recommend the other.

RULE.—*A singular and a plural nominative, separated by a disjunctive, require a verb in the plural; as, Neither the captain nor the sailors were saved.*

* * * The plural nominative should be placed next the verb.

EXERCISES.

Either the boy or the girl were present. It must be confessed that a lampoon or a satire do not carry in them robbery or murder. The modest virgin, the prudent wife, or the careful matron, are much more serviceable in life than petticoated philosophers. Neither precept nor discipline are so forcible as example. Man is not such a machine as a clock or a watch, which move merely as they are moved. Every man, woman, and child, were excluded. They, every one, pursues his destined course. Each of the seasons, as they revolve, give fresh proof of the Divine power and goodness. The seasons, each as it revolves, gives pleasure to the soul. Neither poverty nor riches was injurious to him. They or he was offended. Neither the king nor his ministers deserves to be praised. Whether one or more was concerned in the business, does not yet appear. An ostentatious, a feeble, a harsh, or an obscure style, are always faults. Neither the captain, nor the passengers, nor any of the crew, was saved.

§ 53. RULE VI. 1. *When two or more nominatives combined are of different persons, the verb and pronoun in the plural, prefer the first person to the second, and the second to the third ; as, He and I shared (first person) it between us.*

2. *When nominatives of different persons are disjunctively connected, the verb in the singular agrees with the person next it ; as, Thou or he is the author of it. He or I am to blame.*

Rem.—In the order of arrangement in English, the second person is usually placed before the third, and the first person is always placed last.

EXERCISES.

1. James, and thou, and I, are attached to their country. Thou, and the gardner, and the huntsman, must share the blame of this business amongst them. My sister and I, as well as my brother, are daily employed in their respective occupations. While you are playing, my brother and I are attentive to their studies. You and I will devote your leisure hours to study. Both you and he will be disappointed in their object.

2. Either thou or I art greatly mistaken. He or I is sure of this week's prize. Thomas or thou hast spilt the ink on my paper. John or I has done it. Thou or he art the person who must go on that business.

Promiscuous Exercises on the Preceding Rules.

You was there. Was the horses ready. There are a flock of geese. In the human species the influence of instinct and habit are generally assisted by the suggestions of reason. His having robbed several men were the cause of his punishment. Learning, how much soever it may be despised by some, yet men know it to be an acquirement of great value. He, not the ministers, control all things. These we have extracted from a historian of great merit, and are the same that were formerly practised. His wisdom and not his money produce esteem. The Cape of Good Hope, as well as many islands in the West Indies, are famous for hurricanes.

§ 54. RULE VII. 1. *When a collective noun conveys the idea of unity, its verb must be singular ;* as, *The class was large.*

2. *When a collective noun conveys the idea of plurality, its verb must be plural ;* as, *My people do not consider. They have not known me.*

Rem.—Pronouns referring to collective nouns must in like manner be singular or plural, according as the idea of unity or plurality is expressed.

EXERCISES.

Stephen's party were entirely broken up. The meeting were well attended. The people has no opinion of its own. Send the multitude away, that it may go and buy itself bread. The people was very numerous. A company of troops were despatched to the opposite side of the river. The people rejoices in what should give them sorrow. The multitude eagerly pursues pleasure as its chief good. In France, the peasantry goes bare-foot, while the middle sort makes use of wooden shoes. The British parliament are composed of king, lords, and commons. The fleet is all arrived and moored in safety. The flock, and not the fleece, are, or ought to be, the object of the shepherd's care. When the nation complain, the rulers should listen to their voice. The regiment consist of a thousand men. Never were any nation so infatuated. But this people who knoweth not the law is cursed. The shoal of herrings were immense. Why do this generation seek after a sign? The fleet were seen sailing up the channel. Mankind is more united by the bonds of friendship at present than it was formerly. Part of the coin were preserved. The royal society are numerous and flourishing. "The lowing herd wind slowly round the lea." The noble army of martyrs praiseth thee, O God! The present generation possess far greater advantages than the preceding generation of men; they are more enlightened, and they ought to be more wise and virtuous. A great number of women were present. The audience takes this in good part. All mankind composes one family. The public is respectfully informed.

§ 55. RULE VIII. 1. *Every adjective qualifies a substantive expressed or understood; as, A good boy.*

2. *Adjectives denoting one, must have nouns in the singular; those denoting more than one, must have nouns in the plural; as, This man, these men, six feet.*

Obs. Adjectives should not be used as adverbs. The distinction is, adjectives qualify nouns; adverbs modify verbs adjectives and other adverbs; thus, "He is miserable poor," should be, "he is miserably poor."

Remark 1. Adjectives of number may be denominated *singular* or *plural*, according as in their signification they refer to one, or more than one.

Rem. 2. Adjectives joined with the *singular*, are the ordinal numbers, first, second, last, &c; one, each, every, either, neither, much, with its comparative more, enough, whole: see § 18, 2, Obs. 1.

Still it is correct to say, the first four lines; the last six verses; every twelve years, &c., because the things spoken of are considered as one aggregate, viz. as the first *portion* consisting of four lines. Every *period* of twelve years, &c.

Rem. 3. Adjectives joined with the *plural* only, are all cardinal numbers above one, the words few, many, with its comparative more, both, several, enow. *Many* is sometimes construed with a singular noun; as, "Full many a flower," &c.

Rem. 4. The adjectives, all, no, some, other may be joined with a singular or plural noun according to the sense.

Rem. 5. "This here," "that there," for *this* and *that*; and "them," "them there," for *these* and *those*, are vulgarisms.

Rem. 6. This means and that means refer to one cause; these means, those means, to more than one, § 10, 5 Note. *Amends* is used in the same way as *means*.

EXERCISES.

This boys are diligent. I have not seen him this ten days. Those sort of people fear nothing. These soldiers are remarkable tall. They behaved the noblest. It is uncommon good. Them books are almost new. Give me that there knife. These kind of favours did real injury. There is six foot water in the hold. I have no interests but that of truth and virtue. You will find the remark in the second or third pages. Charles was extravagant, and by those means became poor. The scholars were attentive and industrious, and by that means acquired knowledge. Let each esteem others better than themselves. Every person, whatever be their station, are bound by the laws of morality and religion. Aro either of these men your friend?

§ 56. RULE IX. *When two persons or things are contrasted, that refers to the first mentioned, and this to the last ; as, Virtue and vice are as opposite to each other as light and darkness ; that ennobles the mind, this debases it.*

Remark. *Former* and *latter*, *one* and *other*, are often used instead of *that* and *this*. *Former* and *latter* are alike in both numbers ; *one* and *other* refer to the singular only. *That* and *this*, as applied under this rule, are seldom applied to persons ; but *former* and *latter* are applied to persons or things indiscriminately. In most cases the repetition of the noun is preferable to either of them.

Obs. Hence in the use of the demonstratives when no contrast is expressed, "*this*" and "*these*" refer to things *present* or *just mentioned* ; "*that*" and "*those*" to things *distant* or *formerly mentioned*. Thus, "they cannot be separated from the subject, and for *that* reason," &c. should be, "and for *this* reason," &c.

EXERCISES.

Wealth and poverty are both temptations to man ; this tends to excite pride, that discontentment. Religion raises men above themselves, irreligion sinks them beneath the brutes ; that binds them down to a poor pitiable speck of perishable earth, this opens for them a prospect to the skies. Rex and Tyrannus are of very different characters ; that rules his people by laws to which they consent, this by his absolute will and power ; this is called freedom, that tyranny. More rain falls in the first two summer months than in the first two winter ones ; but it makes a much greater shew in the one than in the other, because there is a much slower evaporation. Health is more valuable than great possessions, and yet the latter is often sacrificed in the pursuit of the former. Exercise and temperance are the best promoters of health : that prevents disease ; this often dissipates it.

Self-love, the spring of motion, moves the soul ;

Reason's comparing balance rules the whole ;

Man, but for this, no action could attend ;

Man, but for that, were active to no end.

(Ex. on Obs.) That very subject which we are now discussing, is still involved in mystery. This vessel of which you spoke yesterday, sailed for the West Indies this morning at 10 o'clock.

§ 57. RULE X. 1. *Pronouns agree with the nouns for which they stand, in gender, number, and person ; as, John is here ; he came an hour ago. Every tree is known by its fruit.*

2. *When a pronoun refers to two words of different persons connected by a copulative conjunction, it becomes plural, and prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third ; as, John and I will do our duty.*

Remark. 1. For an exception to this rule, see § 15, 4.

Rem. 2. The word containing the answer to a question must be in the same case with the word that asks it ; as, Who said that ? I (said it.) Whose books are these ? John's.

Rem. 3. It is improper, in the progress of a sentence, to express the same object by pronouns of different numbers or genders ; as, I laboured long to make *thee* happy, and now *you* reward me by ingratitude. It should be either, "to make *you* happy, or, *thou* rewardest."

EXERCISES.

1. Answer not a fool according to her folly. A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty, but a fool's wrath is heavier than it both. Take handfuls of ashes of the furnace, and let Moses sprinkle it towards heaven in the sight of Pharaoh ; and it shall become small dust. The crown had it in their power to give such rewards as they thought proper. The fruit tree beareth fruit after his kind. Rebecca took goodly raiment and put them upon Jacob.

2. Thou and he shared it between them. James and I are attentive to their studies. You and he are diligent in reading their books ; therefore they are good boys.

(Rem. 2.) Who betrayed her companion ? Not me. Who revealed the secrets he ought to have concealed ? Not him ; it was her. Whom did you meet ? He and his brother. Whose pen is that ? Mine's. Who bought that book ? Him.

(Rem. 3.) Virtue forces her way through obscurity, and sooner or later it is sure to be rewarded. Thou hast ever shewn thyself my real friend, and your kindness to me I can never forget

You draw the inspiring breath of ancient song,
Till nobly rises emulous thy own.
Thou, goddess—mother, with our sire comply ;
If you submit, the thunderer stands appeased.

§ 58. RULE XI. *The relative agrees with its antecedent in number and person, and the verb agrees with it accordingly*; as, 'Thou who speakest. The book which was lost.

See observations on the relative and interrogative, § 16 & 17.

Remark 1. The antecedent, or that to which the relative refers, may be a noun, or pronoun, or clause of a sentence.

Rem. 2. *Who* is applied to persons, or things personified; *which*, to all other objects,—sometimes to children—to collective nouns composed of persons, when unity is expressed; and also to persons in asking questions. (§ 17, Obs 1, 2, 4.)

Rem. 3. The relative *that* is used instead of *who* or *which*;—

1. After adjectives in the superlative degree,—after the words *same* and *all*,—and often after *no*, *some*, and *any*.

2. When the antecedent includes both persons and things; as, The man and the horse *that* we saw yesterday.

3. After the interrogative *who*; and often after the personal pronouns; as, Who *that* has any sense of religion, would have argued thus? I *that* speak in righteousness.

EXERCISES.

1 & 2. Those which seek wisdom, will certainly find her. This is the friend which I love. That is the vice whom I hate. This moon who rose last night had not yet filled her horns. Blessed is the man which walketh in wisdom's ways. Thou who has been a witness of the fact, can give an account of it. I am happy in the friend which I have long proved. The court who gives currency to manners, ought to be exemplary. The tiger is a beast of prey, who destroys without pity. Who of these men came to his assistance? The child whom I saw, is dead.

A train of heroes followed through the field,

Which bore by turns great Ajax's sev'nfold shield.

3. It is the best which can be got. Solomon was the wisest man whom ever the world saw. It is the same picture which you saw before. "And all which beauty, all which wealth e'er gave, await alike the inevitable hour." The lady and lapdog which we saw at the window, have disappeared. The men and things which he has studied, have not contributed to the improvement of his morals. I who speak unto thee, am he. Sidney was one of the wisest and most active governors which Ireland had enjoyed for several years. He has committed the same fault which I condemned yesterday.

RULE XI. *Continued.*

§ 59. SPECIAL RULES AND OBSERVATIONS.

RULE I. *The relative, with its clause, should be placed as near as possible to its antecedent, to prevent ambiguity; thus, "The boy beat his companion, whom every body believed incapable of doing mischief," should be, "The boy, whom every body believed incapable of doing mischief, beat his companion." Hence,*

RULE II. *When the relative is preceded by two words referring to the same thing, its proper antecedent is the one next it; as, Thou art the man who was engaged in that business.*

Observation. The relative is sometimes in such sentences made to agree improperly with the first; "*I am a man who am a Jew.*" This sentence, according to its construction, should be arranged thus; *I, who am a Jew, am a man.* In such sentences care should always be taken to ascertain to which word the relative and its clause belongs, and to arrange the sentence accordingly. In this, the sense is the only guide.

RULE III. *The antecedent, if a pronoun of the third person, is often understood when no emphasis is implied, and is always included in the compound relatives, whoever, whosoever, &c. (§ 16, Obs. 3.)*

Observation. The relative is sometimes understood, especially in colloquial language; as, "*The friend I visited yesterday, is dead to-day,*" for "*The friend whom I visited,*" &c.

EXERCISES.

I. The king dismissed his minister, without any inquiry, who had never before committed so unjust an action. The soldier with a single companion, who passed for the bravest man in the regiment, offered his services. Thou art a friend indeed, who hast relieved me in this dangerous crisis.

II. Thou art the friend that hast often relieved me, and that hast not deserted me now in the time of peculiar need. I am the man who command you. I am the person who adopt that sentiment, and maintains it. Thou art he who driedst up the Red Sea before thy people Israel.

III. He whoever steals my purse, steals trash. Those whom he would, he slew; and those whom he would he kept alive. The man whosoever committeth sin, is the servant of sin. To them whomsoever he saw in distress, he imparted relief.

§ 60. RULE XII. *Substantives denoting the same person or thing, agree in case ; as, Cicero the Orator.*

Words thus used are said to be in *apposition*.

Rem. 1. Two or more nouns, forming one complex name, or a name and a title, with the definite article and a numeral adjective prefixed, have the plural termination annexed to the *last* only ; as, the two Miss *Hays*. The three Miss *Browns*. The two Dr. *Mourees*. Of married ladies, the *name* only is pluralized.

Rem. 2. But when used without the numeral, the plural termination is annexed to the *first* ; as, *Messrs.* Thompson. *Misses* Hamilton.—§ 10, 1.

Obs. The word containing the answer to a question, being in the same construction with the word that asks it, must always be in the same case ; as, *Of whom were the books bought ? Of Johnson, him* who lives in the Strand.

EXERCISES.

The chief of the princes, him who defied the bravest of the enemy, was assassinated by a dastardly villain. He was the son of the Rev. Dr. West, he who published Pindar at Oxford.

(*Rem. 1, 2.*) The two Misses Louisa Howard are very amiable young ladies. The two Messrs. Websters left town yesterday. The two Messrs. Websters will return to-morrow. The Doctors Stevensons have been successful in performing a very difficult operation. The two Doctors Ramsays have returned. The Mrs. Townsend were there, as well as the Mrs. Bay.

(*Obs.*) Of whom were the articles bought ? Of a grocer, he who resides near the Mansion-House. Was any person besides the grocer present ? Yes, both him and his clerk were present. Who was the money paid to ? To the grocer. Who counted it ? Both the clerk and him. Who said that ? Me. Whose books are these ? Her who went out a few minutes ago.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON THE PRECEDING RULES.

Two and two makes four. Dew and hoar frost is more copious in valleys than it is in elevated situations. Either his gratitude or his compassion were roused. Neither he nor I intends to write on that subject. In the human species the influence of instinct and habit are generally assisted by the suggestions of reason. Thomas said that James and me might go. Godliness, with contentment, are great gain. Either avarice, or the cares of this life, has misled him.

§ 61. RULE XIII. *A verb may have the same case after it as before it, when both words refer to the same thing ; as, It is I. I took it to be him.*

Rem. 1. Verbs having the same case after them as before them, are chiefly the verb "to be," "to become," and some other intr. verbs, and passive verbs of naming, choosing, appointing, and the like; as, *He shall be called John. He became the slave of irregular passions. Stephen died a Martyr.* In these examples, the case of the *subject* determines the case of the *predicate* according to the rule. But,

Rem. 2. In substantive phrases the infinitive or participle of an intr. verb without a subject is followed by a substantive or adjective taken indefinitely, and the substantive is in the objective case; (§ 40. R. 23. Obs. 2.) as, "To be the slave of passion, is of all slavery the most wretched." "His dying intestate caused all this trouble." "It is our duty to be obedient to our parents."

Rem. 3. In English almost any verb may be used as a *copula* between its subject and an adjective as a part, or at least as a modification of the predicate; as, "It tastes good," "The wind blows hard," "I remember right," "He feels sick," "He strikes hard," "He drinks deep," &c. In such expressions the adjective so much resembles an adverb in its meaning, that they are usually parsed as such. This, however, is so common a phraseology in our language, and especially in poetry, that they should rather be considered as adjectives in fact as well as in form, though used in a way somewhat peculiar. These expressions seem to be analogous to the Latin "insons feci," "I did it innocently;" "accurrunt læti," "They run up joyfully." Or the Greek ἀφίκετο δευτεράτος, he came on the second day.

EXERCISES.

It was me who wrote the letter. Be not afraid, it is me I am certain that it could not have been her. It is them that deserve most blame. You would undoubtedly act the same part if you were him. I understood it to be he. It may have been him, but there is no proof of it. It may have been him or them who did it.

Who do you think him to be? Whom do men say that I am? She is the person who I understood it to have been. Let him be whom he may, I am not afraid of him. Was it me that said so? It is impossible to be them. I am certain it was not him.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

Surely thou who reads so much in the Bible, can tell me what became of Elijah. Neither the master nor the scholars is reading. Trust not him, whom, you know, is dishonest. I love no interests but that of truth and virtue.

§ 62. RULE XIV. *When two nouns come together, denoting the possessor and the thing possessed, the first is put in the possessive case ; as, John's book ; on eagle's wings.*

Observation. The latter or governing substantive is frequently understood ; as, I found him at the stationer's, (viz. shop or house.)

☞ For observations on the possessive pronoun, see § 18, 1, Obs. 1.

Remark 1. The preposition *of*, with the objective, is generally equivalent to the possessive case, and is often used in preference to it. Thus, "In the name of the army," is better than "In the army's name." Sometimes, however, these two modes of expression are not equivalent ; thus, "The Lord's day," and "The day of the Lord," convey ideas entirely different. § 12, 3.

Rem. 2. Sometimes "*of*" is used before the possessive governing a substantive understood after it ; as, This is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's, (viz. discoveries.) "This is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton." expresses the same idea. These two modes of expression, however, sometimes convey quite different ideas ; thus, "A picture of my friend," means a portrait of him. "A picture of my friend's," means a picture belonging to him. Under both these remarks it may be observed as a general

RULE. *In the use of the possessive, or of its equivalent, "of," with the objective, care should be taken to avoid harshness on the one hand and ambiguity on the other.*

EXERCISES.

It is Pompey's pillar. Seek Virtue's reward. A man's manners frequently influence his fortune. My ancestor's virtue is not mine. As a his heart was perfect with the Lord. A mother's tenderness and a father's care are nature's gifts for man's advantage. Helen her beauty was the cause of Troy its destruction. Longinus his treatise on the sublime. Christ his sake.

(Rem. 1, 2.) The Commons vote was decidedly against the measure. The Lord's house adjourned at a late hour. The Representative's house convened at 12 o'clock. He married my daughter's husband's sister. She married the brother of the wife of my son. The Lord's day will come as a thief in the night. The next day of the Lord came all the people to hear the word. That is a good likeness of De Witt Clinton's. He is the only son of his mother's. The court's decision. I beg the favour of your acceptance of a copy of a view of the manufactories of the West Riding of Yorkshire. The report of the sickness of the son of the king of England, excited the nation's fears.

§ 63. OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XIV.

1. When several nouns come together in the possessive case, implying common possession, the sign of the possessive ('s) is annexed to the last, and understood to the rest; as, "Jane and Lucy's books," i. e. books the common property of Jane and Lucy. But if common possession is not implied, or if several words intervene, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to each; as, "Jane's and Lucy's books," i. e. books, some of which are Jane's and others Lucy's. "This gained the king's, as well as the people's approbation."

2. When a name is complex, consisting of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last only; as, "Julius Cæsar's Commentaries." "John the Baptist's head." "His brother Philip's wife." "The Bishop of London's charge."

3. When a short explanatory term is joined to a name, the sign of the possessive may be annexed to either; as, I called at Smith's the bookseller, or, at Smith the bookseller's. But if, to such a phrase, the governing substantive is added, the sign of the possessive must be annexed to the last; as, "I called at Smith the bookseller's shop."

4. If the explanatory circumstance be complex, or consisting of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive must be annexed to the name or first substantive; as, "This Psalm is David's, the king, priest, and prophet of the people." "That book is Smith's, the bookseller in Maiden Lane."

5. When two nouns in the possessive are governed by different words, the sign of the possessive must be annexed to each; as, "He took refuge at the governor's, the king's representative," i. e. at the "Governor's house."

6. The *s* after the apostrophe is omitted, when the *first* noun has the sound of *s* in each of its two last syllables, and the second noun begins with *s*; as, For righteousness' sake, &c. (§ 12, 2.) In other cases, such omission would generally be improper; as, James' book, Miss' shoes; instead of James's book, Miss's shoes.

7. A clause of a sentence should never come between the possessive case and the word by which it is governed; thus, "She began to extol the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding," should be,—“the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him.”

8. The possessive *whosoever* and the compounds *whichever*, *whatsoever*, *howsoever* are sometimes divided by interposing the word to which they belong; as, *whose* house *soever*; *what* man *soever*. This in general however is to be avoided, and to be admitted only when euphony and precision are thereby promoted.

RULE XIV. *Continued.*

§ 63. EXERCISES ON OBSERVATIONS.

1. William's and Mary's reign. This is your father's mother's and brother's advice. Peter's John's and Andrew's occupation was that of fishermen. He asked his father, as well as his mother's advice. John and Robert's boots fit them very well. The Betsey and the Speedwell's cargoes were both damaged.

2. Jack's the Giant killer's wonderful exploits. The Bishop's of Landaff's excellent work. During Charles's the second's reign. The Lord Mayor's of London authority. That carriage is the Lord Mayor's of London.

3. The books were left at Brown's the bookseller's. I left him at Mayell's the hatter's shop. Thorburn's the seedsman store is now open.

4. The books were left at Brown the bookseller and stationer's. I left the parcel at Johnson, a respectable bookseller, a worthy man, and an old friend's. I reside at Lord Stormont, my old patron and benefactor's. Whose glory did he emulate? He emulated Cæsar, the greatest general of antiquity's.

5. That book is Thompson the Tutor's assistant. We spent an agreeable hour at Wilson the Governor's deputy, and on our return called at Mr. Smith little Henry's father.

6. James' father arrived yesterday and Mr. Spence's servant came with him. Charles' books are completely spoiled. For conscience's sake Miss' books have been sent home.

7. They very justly condemned the prodigal's, as he was called, senseless and extravagant conduct. This is Paul's the christian hero and great apostle of the Gentiles advice. Beyond this the arts cannot be traced of civil society.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON THIS RULE.

The emperor and the Dukes cavalry were engaged. This is for consciences sake. Escape Atrides ire. He bought the articles at Wilson's the druggist's. William and John's wives were present. The estate of William's was much encumbered.

§ 64. RULE XV *When the present participle is used as a noun, (§ 30, 7.) a noun before it is put in the possessive case ; as, Much depends on the pupil's composing frequently.*

Obs. A pronoun in this construction must be the possessive pronoun, not the possessive case ; as, Much depends on *your* composing, &c., not *yours* composing.

Remark 1. If not used as a noun, the noun or pronoun before it may be in any case which the construction requires ; as, I see men walking. These two modes of expression, in many cases, convey very different ideas, and therefore care should be taken not to confound them ; thus, "What do you think of my horse running to-day ?" means, Do you think I should let him run ? But, "What do you think of my horse's running to-day ?" means, he *has* run, do you think he ran well ?

Rem. 2. The present participle, with a possessive before it, sometimes admits of after it, and sometimes not.

Rem. 3. When a preposition follows the participle, *of* is inadmissible : as, His depending on promises, proved his ruin. His neglecting to study when young, rendered him ignorant all his life

EXERCISES.

What is the reason of this person dismissing his servant so hastily ? I remember it being done. This jealousy accounts for Hall charging the Duke of Gloucester with the murder of Prince Edward. He being a great man did not make him a happy man. Much depends on the rule being observed. Richard observing the rule will be the means of him avoiding error. What do you think of my horse running to-day ? did he run well ?

(Rem. 1.) That man's running so fast, is in danger of falling. A youth's pursuing his studies with diligence and perseverance, can hardly fail of success. What do you think of my horse's running to-day ? will it be safe ?

(Rem. 2.) Our approving their bad conduct may encourage them to become worse. For his avoiding that precipice he is indebted to his friend's care. Their observing the rules prevented errors. By his studying of the scriptures he became wise. Their condemning of the innocent and acquitting of the guilty will cover them with infamy. Heraldry teaches the knowledge of those marks of honour called coats of arms, and the method of blazoning of them and marshalling of them : blazoning signifies the displaying the several emblems and colours of an achievement in proper terms ; marshalling, is the joining divers arms in one shield.

§ 65. RULE. XVI. *When the present participle, used as a noun, has an article before it, it should have the preposition of, after it ; as, In the keeping of his commandments there is a great reward.*

Remark 1. The sense will often be the same if both the article and the preposition be omitted: but the one should not be omitted without the other: thus, In keeping his commandments, &c. When a possessive case or a possessive pronoun precedes, *of* usually follows. See § 64, Rem. 2.

Rem. 2. In some cases, however, these two modes express very different ideas, and therefore attention to the sense is necessary; as, He confessed the whole in the hearing of three witnesses, and the court spent an hour in hearing their deposition.

To prevent ambiguity in such cases, it might be well to observe the following

RULE.—*When the participle expresses something of which the noun following is the doer, it should have the article and preposition ; as, “It was said in the hearing of the witness.” When it expresses something of which the noun following is not the doer but the object, both should be omitted ; as, the Court spent some time in hearing the witness.**

EXERCISES.

Learning of languages is very difficult. The learning any thing speedily, requires great application. By the exercising our faculties, they are improved. By observing of these rules, you will avoid mistakes. By the obtaining wisdom, thou wilt command esteem. This was a betraying the trust reposed in him. The not attending to this rule, is the cause of a very common error. He confined all his philosophy to the suffering ills patiently. This order so critically given, occasioned the gaining the battle. This was, in fact, converting the deposits to his own use. Propriety of pronunciation is the giving to every word that sound, which the most polite usage of the language appropriates to it.

(Rem. 2.) At hearing the ear they shall obey. Be cause of provoking his sons and daughters, the Lord abhorred them. He expressed the pleasure he had in the hearing of the philosopher. In the hearing of the will read, and in the examining of sundry papers, much time was spent.

* For the participle in *ing* used absolutely, see § 80, Obs. 2.

§ 66. RULE XVII. *The perfect participle, and not the imperfect tense, should be used after the verbs HAVE and BE; as, I have written, (not wrote.) I am chosen.*

Remark 1. The perfect participle should not be used instead of the imperfect tense: Thus it is improper to say "he begun," for "he began," "he run," for "he ran," "he done," for "he did:" "he seen," for "he saw."

Rem 2. The present participle active, and not the perfect, is used after the verb to be, to express the continued suffering of an action; as, "The house is building," not "being built." When the participle in *-ing* has not a passive sense, the idea must be expressed by means of the active voice. Thus we do not say "the book is now reading" (nor "the book is now being read,") but "he (or she, &c.) is now reading the book." See § 30 and 31

EXERCISES.

I would have wrote a letter. He had mistook his true interest. The coat had no seam, but was wove througout. The French language is spoke in every part of Europe. His resolution was too strong to be shook by slight opposition. The horse was stole from the pasture. They have chose the part of honour and virtue. She was shewed into the drawing room. He has broke the bottle. Some fell by the way side and was trode down. The work was very well execute. Philosophers have often mistook the true source of happiness. He has chose to ride. He drunk too much. I am almost froze. He has forsook us. The desk was shook. It was well wrote.

1. By too eager pursuit he run a great risk of being disappointed. He soon begun to weary of having nothing to do. He was greatly heated, and drunk with avidity. The bending hermit here a prayer begun. And end with sorrows as they first begun.

A second deluge learning thus o'er-run,
And the Monks finished what the Goths begun.

These men done more than could have been expected. There can be no mistake, for I seen them do it.

2. The work was then being printed, and it was expected to be published in a few days. That house has been being built for six months; it is now being plastered, and will be finished soon. He is now being shaved at the barber's shop. A place is now being prepared for us. The world was then circumnavigating by Captain Cook.

§ 67. RULE XVIII. 1. *One verb governs another in the infinitive mood* ; as, I desire to learn.

2. *To, the sign of the infinitive, is not used after the verbs bid, dare, need, make, see, hear, feel, and let, in the active voice, nor after let, in the passive.*

Also sometimes after perceive, behold, observe, have, and know.

Remark 1. The infinitive after a verb is governed by it only when the attribute expressed by the infinitive is either the subject or object of the other verb. In such expressions as "I read to learn," the infinitive is not governed by "I read," but depends on the phrase "in order to" understood.

Rem. 2. The infinitive is also used sometimes independently of the rest of the sentence, like the imperfect participle ; (§ 80, Obs. 3.) as, To confess the truth, I was in fault.

RULE.--The infinitive mood is often governed by nouns, adjectives and participles, and sometimes stands after as corresponding with so ; as, They have a desire to learn : Worthy to be praised : Wishing to excel : Be so good as to read this letter.

EXERCISES.

1. Strive learn. They obliged him do it. Newton did not wish obtrude his discoveries on the public. His penetration and diligence seemed vie with each other.

2. They need not to call upon her. I dare not to proceed so hastily. I have seen some young persons to conduct themselves very discreetly. He bade me to go home. It is the difference of their conduct which makes us to approve the one and to reject the other. We heard the thunder to roll. He felt the pain to abate. I would have you to take more care. He was reluctantly made obey. They were heard say it in a large company. They were seen pass the house. He was let to go. I have observed some satirists to use the term.

Promiscuous.—He writes as the best authors would have wrote, had they writ upon the same subject. The enemies who we have most to fear, are those of our own hearts. They that honour me, them will I honour. Good as the cause is, it is one from which numbers are deserted. The number was now amounted to fifty. They were descended from a noble family.

§ 68. RULE XIX. 1. *When doubt and futurity are both implied, the subjunctive mood is used*; as, Though he fall, (i. e. at some future time,) he shall arise again.

2. *When doubt only, and not futurity, is implied, the indicative is used*; as, If he speaks (i. e. now,) as he thinks, he may be safely trusted.

Remark. Doubt is usually expressed by the conjunctions *if, though, unless, except, whether, &c.* Whether futurity is implied or not, must be ascertained from the context. In accurate composition, of course the mood employed will direct to the meaning of the sentence; thus, "I will do it if the master *desires* me," (i. e. at present.) Here there is uncertainty only whether he *does desire* me. "I will do it if the master *desire* me," (i. e. at a future time.) Here there is uncertainty whether he *will desire* me. or not. Consequently there is both doubt and futurity. *If* and *though, &c.* when referring to what is fixed and certain, are equivalent to "*notwithstanding,*" and consequently the verb follows in the indicative; as, "Though he *was* rich, yet for our sakes he became poor.

RULE I. *Lest, and that, annexed to a command, require the subjunctive mood*; as, Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty. Take heed that thou speak not to Jacob, either good or bad.

RULE II. *If, with but following it, when futurity is denoted, requires the subjunctive mood*; as, If he do but touch the hills they shall smoke. *When future time is not expressed, the indicative ought to be used.*

Obs. The subjunctive is used to express a wish or desire; as, "I wish that I *were* at home." "O that he *were* wise."

EXERCISES.

If a man smites his servant and he die, he shall surely be put to death. If he acquires riches they will corrupt his mind. Though he be high he hath respect to the lowly. If thou live virtuously, thou art happy. If he does promise he will certainly perform. O that his heart was tender. As the governess were present the children behaved properly. Though he falls he shall not be utterly cast down. If he is at home to-morrow, give him the letter.

(Rule I.) Despise not any condition lest it happens to be thy own. Let him that is sanguine take heed lest he miscarries. Take care that thou speakest the truth.

(Rule II.) If he is but discreet he will succeed. If he be but in health I am content. If he does but intimate his desire, it will produce obedience.

§ 69. RULE XX. 1. *Conjunctions couple the same moods and tenses of verbs* ; as, *Do good, and seek peace.*

2. *Conjunctions couple the same cases of nouns and pronouns* ; as, *He and I are happy.*

Remark 1. Verbs in the same mood and tense, connected by a conjunction, must also be in the same form. For the different forms of the verb, see § 24.

Rem. 2. When conjunctions connect different moods and tenses, the nominative is generally repeated ; as, *He may return, but he will not remain.*

Rem. 3. When a contrast is stated, with *but, not, though, &c.* the nominative is usually repeated, even with the same mood and tense ; as, *You can not ride, but you may walk.*

Observation. After verbs of *doubting, fearing and denying*, the conjunction *that* should be used, and not *lest, but, but that* ; as, *You do not doubt that he is honest, (not, but that, &c.) They feared that they would not return, (not lest, &c.) You do not deny that he has some ability, (not, but he has,) &c. That* is frequently understood ; as, *We were desirous (that) you would return.*

Rem. 4. The relative usually follows *than* in the objective case, even when the nominative goes before ; as, *Alfred, than whom a greater king never reigned.* This anomaly it is difficult to explain. Most probably, "than," at first had the force of a preposition, which it now retains only when followed by the relative.

EXERCISES.

1. He reads and wrote well. Anger glances into the breast of a wise man but will rest only in the bosom of fools. If he understand the subject and attends to it he can scarcely fail of success. Professing regard and to act differently mark a base mind.

2. He or me must go. Neither he nor her can attend. You and us enjoy many privileges. My father and him were very intimate. He is taller than me. I am not so wise as him. She was six years older than me. You may as lawfully preach as them that do.

1. We often overlook the blessings we possess, and are searching after those which are out of our reach. Did he not tell thee his fault, and entreated thee to forgive him ?

2 & 3. Rank may confer influence, but will not necessarily produce virtue. She was proud though now humble. He is not rich but respectable. Our season of improvement is short, and whether used or not will soon pass away. I have been young, but now am old.

(Obs.) We can not question but this confederacy must have been a source of friendship and attachment. We were apprehensive lest some accident had happened.

§ 70. RULE XXI. *Some conjunctions and adverbs have their corresponding conjunctions ; thus,*

Neither requires *nor* after it ; as, *Neither* he *nor* his brother was in.

Though, ——— *yet* ; as, *Though* he was rich, *yet* for our sakes, &c.

Whether, ——— *or* ; *Whether* he go *or* stay.

Either, ——— *or* ; I will *either* write *or* send.

As, ——— *as* ; (expressing equality) Mine is *as* good *as* yours.

As, ——— *so* ; (expressing equality) *As* the stars, *so* shall thy seed be.

So, ——— *as* ; (with a negative expressing inequality) He is not *so* wise *as* his brother.

So, ——— *that* ; (expressing consequence) I am *so* weak *that* I cannot walk.

Not only, ——— *but also* ; *Not only* his property, *but also* his life was in danger.

If, ——— *then* ; (in reasoning) *If* he can do it, *then* he will do it.

Note. *As* and *so* in the antecedent member of a comparison are properly adverbs.—§ 34, 4.

Rem. The infinitive is often used after *as* corresponding to *so* ; as, “I must be *so* plain *as* to tell you your faults.”

Note. The Poets frequently use *Or—or*, for *Either—or* and *Nor—nor*, for *Neither—nor*. In prose, *Not—nor*, is often used for *Neither—nor*. The *yet* after *though* is often properly suppressed. *Or* does not require *either* before, when the one word is a mere explanation of the other ; as, It is six feet *or* one fathom deep. In other cases, when *either* is not used, it may be supplied.

EXERCISES.

It is neither cold or hot. It is so clear as I need not explain it. The relations are so uncertain as that they require much examination. The one is equally deserving as the other. I must be so candid to own that I have been mistaken. He would not do it himself nor let me do it. He was as angry as he could not speak. So as thy days so shall thy strength be. Though he slay me so will I trust in him. He must go himself or send his servant. There is no condition so secure as cannot admit of change. He is not as eminent and as much esteemed as he thinks himself to be. Neither despise the poor or envy the rich, for the one dieth so as the other. As far as I am able to judge, the book is well written. His raiment was so white as snow. He must be as candid as to say so. There was no man so sanguine, who did not apprehend some ill consequences. The dog in the manger would not eat the hay himself, nor suffer the ox to do it. He was so fat he could hardly walk.—Neither despise or oppose what thou dost not understand.

§ 71. RULE XXII. *The comparative degree and the pronoun other require than after them, and such requires as; as, Greater than I; No other than he; Such as do well.*

Such meaning a consequence, or so great requires that after it.

RULE.—*When two objects are compared, the comparative is generally used; but when more than two, the superlative; as, James is older than John. Mary is the wisest of them all.*

Remark 1. Sometimes, however, the superlative is used when only two objects are compared, as it is frequently more agreeable to the ear, and it cannot injure the sense; thus, He is the weakest of the two.

Rem. 2. A comparison in which more than two is concerned may be expressed by the *comparative* as well as by the *superlative*; and in some cases better: but the comparative considers the objects compared as belonging to different classes; while the superlative compares them as included in *one* class. The comparative is used thus; "Greece was more polished than any *other* nation of antiquity." Here Greece stands by herself, as opposed to the *other* nations of antiquity. She was none of the *other nations*: She was more polished than they. The same idea is expressed by the superlative when the word *other* is left out. Thus, "Greece was the most polished nation of antiquity." Here to Greece is assigned the highest place in the class of objects among which she is numbered—the nations of antiquity: she is one of them. This distinction should be carefully observed. The comparative is sometimes used in the same way; as, He is the taller of the two.

EXERCISES.

He has little more of the scholar besides the name. Be ready to succour such persons who need thy assistance. They had no sooner risen but they applied themselves to their studies. These savage people seemed to have no other element but war. Such men that act treacherously ought to be avoided. He gained nothing farther by his speech, but only to be commended for his eloquence. This is none other but the gate of Paradise. Such sharp replies that cost him his life. To trust in him is no more but to acknowledge his power.

(Rule.) James is the wisest of the two. Of the three, Jane is the weaker. (Rem. 2.) Chimborazo is higher than any other mountain in Europe. Eve was the fairest of all her daughters. I understood him the best of all others who spoke on the subject. Solomon was wiser than any of the ancient kings. China has a greater population than any nation on earth. London is the most populous of any city in France. Spain possessed more merchant ships than any nation in Europe. Jacob loved Joseph more than all his children.

§ 72. RULE XXIII. *Double comparatives and superlatives are improper* ; Thus we ought not to say, "more better," "most better," but "better," "best."

Obs. It is improper to compare adjectives whose signification does not admit of increase or diminution, (§ 13, *Obs.* 4.) Of this kind are *true*, *perfect*, *universal*, *chief*, *extreme*, *supreme*, &c., which have in themselves a superlative sense. When comparison of these and similar words is admitted, as is sometimes done, they must be understood in a limited sense. Such adjectives as *superior*, *inferior*, though they imply comparison, are not in the comparative degree, and are never construed as such, but have *to* after them.

EXERCISES.

It argued the most sincerest candor to make such an acknowledgement. After the most strictest sect of our religion I lived a Pharisee. He always possessed a more serener temper. 'Tis more easier to build two chimneys, than to maintain one. The tongue is like a race horse which runs the faster the lesser weight it carries. The nightingales voice is the most sweetest in the grove.

His assertion was most untrue. His work was perfect ; his brother's more perfect, and his father's the most perfect of all. Virtue confers the supremest dignity on man, and should be his chiefest desire. His most extreme vanity renders him most supremely ridiculous. This is more inferior than that though it is more superior than many others.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

The great power and force of custom forms another argument against bad company. And Joshua he shall go over before thee as the Lord hath said. If thou be the king of the Jews save thyself. The people therefore that was with him when he raised Lazarus out of his grave, bare record. Public spirit is a more universal principle than a sense of honour. I see you have a new pair of gloves. Five years' interest were demanded. In all his works is sprightliness and vigour. The returns of kindness is sweet, and there are neither honour nor virtue in resisting them.

How rarely reason guides the stubborn choice ;

Rule the bold hand, or prompt the suppliant voice.

§ 73. RULE XXIV. 1. *Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.* § 33.

2. *Adverbs should not be used as adjectives*; Thus, "Use a little wine for thine *often* infirmities," should be, "for thy *frequent* infirmities."

RULE I. From *should not be used before* hence, thence, and whence, *because it is implied.*

Note. Custom, however, has so far sanctioned the violation of this rule, that a strict adherence to it would now appear stiff and affected.

RULE II. *After verbs of motion*, hither, thither, and whither, are now used only on solemn occasions. In other cases, the adverbs, here, there, and where, are employed; as, He came *here*. We rode *there*.

Obs. 1. *Where* should not be used for *in which*, nor *when*, *then*, and *while* as nouns. *So*, is often used elliptically for an adjective, a noun, or a whole sentence; as, They are *rich*, we are not so. *He is a good scholar*, and I told you so.

Obs. 2. *Only*, *solely*, *chiefly*, *merely*, *too*, *also*, and perhaps a few others, are sometimes joined to substantives; as, Not *only* the men, but the women *also* were present.

Obs. 3. *There* is an adverb of place; but in the common phrases "there is," "there are," "there have been," &c. its reference to place is lost sight of, and it is used merely as a leading word to the verb, when the nominative follows it, and to convey the idea of existence simply; as, "*There* are men who cannot read" i. e. men are *in existence* who cannot read. To say, "*men are* who cannot read," would in our language, at least, sound abrupt and harsh. The French make the same use of this adverb in the corresponding expressions "*il y a*," "*il y a voit*." &c.

EXERCISES.

They hoped for a soon and prosperous issue to the war. He was befriended by the then reigning Duke. Some of my then hearers urged me to publish these lectures.

(Rule I. and II.) From whence come ye? He departed from thence into a desert place. I will send thee far from hence to the Gentiles. Where art thou gone! The city is near, O let me escape there. Where I am, there ye cannot come. From whence we may likewise date the period of this event. He walked thither in less than an hour.

(Obs. 1.) He drew up a petition where he represented his own merit. He went to London last year, since when I have not seen him. The situation where I found him.

§ 74. RULE XXV. *Adverbs are for the most part placed before adjectives, after a verb in the simple form, and after the first auxiliary in the compound form; as, He is very attentive, behaves well, and is much esteemed.*

Obs. 1. This is to be considered only as a general rule to which there are many exceptions. Indeed no rule for the position of the adverb can be given, which is not liable to exceptions. That order is the best which conveys the meaning with most precision. In order to this, the adverb is sometimes placed before the verb, or at some distance after it. *Never, often, always, sometimes*, generally precede the verb. *Not*, with the present participle, should generally be placed before it. *Enough* follows the adjective, and sometimes both follow the noun; thus, a solid enough reason, or, a reason solid enough.

The introductive or emphatic *there*, and the interrogative *where*, are placed at the beginning of the sentence; as, *There* were many varieties; *There* they are. *Where* are you?—*There*, in its strict sense, follows the verb; as, The man stands *there*.

Obs. 2. The improper position of the adverb *only*, often occasions ambiguity. This will generally be avoided when it refers to a sentence or clause, by placing it at the beginning of that sentence or clause; when it refers to a predicate, by placing it before the predicated term; and when it refers to a subject, by placing it after its name or description, as, "*Only* acknowledge thine iniquity:" "The thoughts of his heart are *only* evil:" Take nothing for your journey but a staff *only*." These observations will generally be applicable to the words, *merely, solely, chiefly, first, at least*, and perhaps to a few others.

Obs. 3. *Ever* and *never* are sometimes improperly confounded.

EXERCISES.

We should not be overcome totally by present events. He unaffectedly and forcibly spoke, and was heard attentively by the whole assembly. It cannot be impertinent or ridiculous, therefore, to remonstrate. Not only he found her employed, but pleased and tranquil also. In the proper disposition of adverbs, the ear carefully requires to be consulted as well as the sense.

(*Obs. 1.*) The women contributed all their rings and jewels voluntarily to assist the government. Having not known, or having not considered the measures proposed, he failed of success. He was determined to invite back the king, and to call together his friends.

(*Obs. 2.*) Theism can only be opposed to polytheism. By greatness, I do not only mean the bulk of any single object, but the largeness of a whole view. Only you have I known, of all the nations of the earth. In using every exertion in our power for the public good, we only discharge our duty.

§ 75. RULE XXVI. *Two negatives in the same sentence are improper, unless we mean to affirm; thus, "I cannot by no means allow it," should be, "I cannot by any means allow it." Or, "I can by no means allow it."*

The reason of this rule is, that one negative destroys another, or is equivalent to an affirmative.

Obs. Sometimes two negatives are intended to affirm, and in this case, if one of them, such as *dis-*, *in-*, *im-*, *un-*, &c. is prefixed to another word, a pleasing and delicate variety of expression is produced; as, "Nor was the king unacquainted with his designs," i. e. he "was acquainted with them." In such sentences the intervention of *only*, which is equivalent to a distinct clause, preserves the negation; as, "He was not only illiberal, but he was covetous." But if the negative consist of two separate and detached words, the expression is generally harsh and inelegant; as, Nor have I no money which I can spare, i. e. I have money which I can spare.

Note. The English language in this respect agrees with the Latin, but differs from the Greek and French, in both of which two negatives with the same subject render the negation stronger.

EXERCISES.

I cannot drink no more. He cannot do nothing. He will never be no taller. Covet neither riches nor honours, nor no such perishing things. Do not interrupt me thyself, nor let no one disturb me. I am resolved not to comply with the proposal, neither at present nor at any other time. I have received no information on the subject, neither from him nor from his friend. There cannot be nothing more insignificant than vanity. Nor is danger apprehended in such a government, no more than we commonly apprehend danger from thunder or earthquakes. Never no imitator grew up to his author.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

James and I am cousins. Thy father's merits sets thee forth to view. That it is our duty to be pious admit not of any doubt. If he becomes rich he may be less industrious. It was wrote extempore. Romulus, which founded Rome, killed his brother Remus. He involved a friend in a troublesome lawsuit who had always supported him. Who of you convinceth me of sin. I treat you as a boy who love to learn and are ambitious of receiving instruction. He was the ablest minister which James ever possessed.

§ 76. RULE XXVII. *Appropriate prepositions must be used before names of places ; thus,*

To—is used after a verb of motion ; as, He *went to* Spain, but it is omitted before *home* ; as, he *went home* yesterday.

At—is used after the verb *to be* ; as, I *was at* Rochester.

In—is used before names of countries and large cities ; as, I live *in* Albany, *in* the State of New-York.

At—is used before single houses, villages, towns, and foreign cities ; as, He *is at* home, He resided *at* Gretna green ; *at* York ; *at* Rome.

Obs. 1. One inhabitant speaking of another's residence, says, He lives *in* State Street, or if the word *number* be used,—*at* No. — State Street.

Obs. 2. *Interjections* sometimes have an objective after them, but they never govern it ; it is always governed by an active verb or preposition understood ; as, Ah me ! i. e. *Ah !* what has happened to *me*. The case after an interjection will always have to depend on the supplement to be made. It will generally, however, be the objective of the *first* personal pronoun, and the nominative of the *second* ; as, Ah me ! O thou wretch ! § 80. 2.

EXERCISES.

They have just arrived in Buffalo, and are going to Rochester. They will reside two months at England. I have been to London after having resided in France, and I now live at New-York. I was in the place appointed long before any of the rest. We touched in Liverpool on our way for New-York. I have been to home for a few days. He spends much of his time in a village in Long Island. He had lodgings at George's Square. He boards in No. 12, Dean-street. We have been to home since morning. I will go to home to-morrow.

(*Obs.* 2.) Ah ! unhappy thee, who are deaf to the calls of duty and of honour. Oh ! happy us, surrounded with so many blessings. Woe's I, for I am a man of unclean lips.

Promiscuous. He has been expecting of us some time. Young persons need not to be initiated in the language of controversy. His quitting of the army was unexpected. I seen him yesterday. If there was no cowardice, there would be little insolence. I was rejoiced at the news. I shall do my friends no wrong, for I have none to lament me. They were descended from a family that came over with the Conqueror. They did not behave with that decorum which is the duty of every gentleman to observe.

§ 77. RULE XXVIII. *Certain words and phrases must be followed with appropriate prepositions ; such as,*

- | | |
|--|--|
| Abhorrence <i>of</i> . | Engaged <i>in</i> a work— <i>for</i> a time. |
| Accommodate <i>to</i> . | Equal <i>to</i> , <i>with</i> . |
| Accord <i>with</i> . | Exception <i>from</i> . |
| Accuse <i>of</i> . | Expert <i>in</i> , (before a noun,)— <i>at</i> ,
(before an active participle.) |
| Acquit <i>of</i> . | Fall <i>under</i> . |
| Adapted <i>to</i> . | Familiar <i>to</i> , <i>with</i> : A thing is
familiar <i>to</i> us ; we are familiar
<i>with</i> it. |
| Agreeable <i>to</i> . | Free <i>from</i> . |
| Ask or inquire <i>of</i> a person <i>for</i>
what we wish to see,— <i>after</i>
what we wish to hear <i>of</i> . | Glad <i>of</i> , something gained by
ourselves,— <i>at</i> , something that
befals another. |
| Averse <i>to</i> or <i>from</i> . | Incorporate <i>into</i> , (when active.)
<i>with</i> , (when neuter.) |
| Believe <i>in</i> , sometimes <i>on</i> . | Independent <i>of</i> or <i>on</i> . |
| Bestow <i>upon</i> . | Indulge <i>with</i> what is not habit
ual,— <i>in</i> what is habitual. |
| Betray <i>to</i> a person,— <i>into</i> any
thing else. | Insist <i>upon</i> . |
| Boast <i>of</i> . See Obs. 3. | Intrude <i>into</i> an enclosed place ;
<i>upon</i> what is not enclosed. |
| Call <i>on</i> a person,— <i>at</i> a house. | Made <i>of</i> . |
| Change <i>for</i> . | Marry <i>to</i> . |
| Charge a person <i>with</i> a thing,—
a thing <i>on</i> an agent. | Martyr <i>for</i> . |
| Compare <i>with</i> , <i>in</i> respect of
quality,— <i>to</i> , for the sake of
illustration. | Need <i>of</i> . |
| Compliance <i>with</i> . | Observation <i>of</i> . |
| Concur <i>with</i> , <i>in</i> , <i>on</i> . | Prejudice <i>against</i> . |
| Confide <i>in</i> . | Prevail (to persuade) <i>with</i> , <i>on</i> ,
<i>upon</i> ,—(to overcome,) <i>over</i> ,
<i>against</i> . |
| Conformable, consonant <i>to</i> . | Profit <i>by</i> . |
| Conversant <i>with</i> men,— <i>in</i> things ;
<i>about</i> and <i>among</i> are less
proper. | Protect (others) <i>from</i> ,—(our-
selves) <i>against</i> . |
| Copy <i>from</i> life, nature,— <i>after</i> a
parent. | Provide <i>with</i> or <i>for</i> . |
| Dependent <i>upon</i> . | Reconcile <i>to</i> friendship,— <i>with</i> ,
(to make consistent.) |
| Derogative <i>from</i> . | Reduce (to subdue) <i>under</i> ,— <i>in</i>
other cases, <i>to</i> ; as, <i>to</i> powder,
<i>to</i> fractions. |
| Die <i>of</i> disease— <i>by</i> an instrument
or violence. | Regard <i>to</i> . |
| Differ <i>from</i> . | Replete <i>with</i> . |
| Difficulty <i>in</i> . | Resemblance <i>to</i> . |
| Diminish <i>from</i> ,—diminution <i>of</i> . | Resolve <i>on</i> . |
| Disappointed <i>in</i> or <i>of</i> . § 86, 5. | Rule <i>over</i> . |
| Disapprove <i>of</i> . See Obs. 3. | Sick <i>of</i> . |
| Discourage <i>from</i> . | |
| Discouragement <i>to</i> . | |
| Dissent <i>from</i> . | |
| Eager <i>in</i> . | |

RULE XXVIII. *Continued.*

Sink <i>into</i> , <i>beneath</i> .	sense) <i>with</i> ,—(in an active
Swerve <i>from</i> .	sense) <i>to</i> .
Taste <i>for</i> , or <i>of</i> . § 86, 6.	Value <i>upon</i> or <i>on</i> .
Tax <i>with</i> , (e. g. a crime,)— <i>for</i>	Vest <i>with</i> a thing possessed—in
the state.	the possessor.
Think <i>of</i> or <i>on</i> .	Wait <i>upon</i> , <i>on</i> .
True <i>to</i> .	Worthy <i>of</i> ; sometimes the <i>of</i> is
Unite (in a neutral or passivo	understood.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. The particular preposition which it is proper to use, often depends as much upon what follows as upon what goes before; thus we say, To fall *from* a height,—to fall *into* a pit,—to fall *to* work,—to fall *upon* an enemy.

2. *Into* is used only after verbs of motion, and denotes *entrance*; *In* is used when motion or rest in a place is signified; as, 'They went *into* a carriage, and travelled *in* it ten miles.

3. *Boast*, *approve*, and *disapprove*, are often used without *of*. *Worthy* has sometimes *of* following it, and sometimes not.

4. The same preposition that follows the *verb* or *adjective*, usually follows the *noun* derived from it, and vice versa; as, Confide *in*,—confidence *in*,—confident *in*. Disposed *to* tyrannize,—a disposition *to* tyrannize, &c.

EXERCISES.

He was very eager of recommending him to his fellow-citizens. He found great difficulty of writing. He accused the ministers for having betrayed the Dutch. This is certainly not a change to the better. The English were a very different people then to what they are now. The history of Peter is agreeable with the sacred text. It was intrusted to persons on whom Congress could confide. I completely dissent with the examiner. Nothing shall make me swerve out of the path of duty. There was no water, and he died for thirst. We can safely confide on none but the truly good. Many have profited from good advice. The error was occasioned by compliance to earnest entreaty. This is a principle in unison to our nature. This remark is founded in truth. His parents think on him and his improvements with pleasure and hope.

EXERCISES ON RULE XXVIII. *Continued.*

You have bestowed your favors to the most deserving persons. The wisest persons need not think it any diminution of their greatness, or derogation to their sufficiency, to rely upon counsel. Conformable with this plan. It is consonant with our nature. He had no regard after his father's commands. There was a prejudice to his cause. There is no need for it. Reconciling himself with the king. They have no resemblance with each other. Upon such occasions as fell into their cognizance. I am engaged with preparing for a journey. We profit from experience. He is resolved of going to the Persian court. Expert about deceiving. The Romans reduced the world to their own power. He provided them in every thing. He seems to have a taste of such studies. You are conversant with that science. He is more conversant in men of science than in politicians. These are exceptions to the general rule. He died for thirst. He died of the sword. He is glad of calamities. She is glad at his company.

He saw your brother, and inquired from him for his friend's health. He was charged on being accessory to the murder. This is the first time we have been indulged in such a luxury. He indulges himself with the most pernicious habits. I hope I do not intrude into you. He will suffer no one to intrude upon his house. Is that a copy after nature? If you copy from your father's example, you will do well. He has never been reconciled with his lot. How can such conduct be reconciled to the principles he professes? It is proper that the people should be taxed with the support of government. Cannot you prevail over your father to pay us a visit? The enemy prevailed upon us by superior force. Take care to protect yourself from the dangers which threaten you. The walls protected us against the fire of the enemy. He has now become familiar to the rules of grammar. Your countenance is familiar with me. All his means were vested with trade. The office of judge and advocate should not be vested with the same person.

§ 78. RULE XXIX. *In the use of verbs and words that in point of time relate to each other, the order of time must be observed ; as, "I have known him these many years ;" not, "I know him these many years."*

Remark. The particular tense necessary to be used must depend upon the sense, and no rules can be given that will apply to all cases. But it may be proper to observe,

Observation 1. An observation which is always true must be expressed in the present tense ; as, The stoics believed that "all crimes are equal."

Obs. 2. The perfect, and not the present tense, should be used in connexion with words denoting an *extent* of time continued to the present ; thus, "They *continue* with me now three days," should be "*have continued*," &c.

Obs. 3. The perfect tense ought never to be used in connexion with words which express past time ; thus, "I have *formerly* mentioned his attachment to study," should be "I *formerly* mentioned," &c.

Obs. 4. The present and past of the auxiliaries, *shall, will, may, can*, should never be associated in the same sentence ; and care must be taken that the subsequent verb be expressed in the same tense with the antecedent verb ; thus, "I *may* or *can* do it now, if I *choose* ;" "I *might* or *could* do it now, if I *chose* ;" "I *shall* or *will* do it, when I *can* ;" "I *may* do it, if I *can* ;" "I once *could* do it, but I *would* not ;" "I *would* have done it then, but I *could* not." "I *mention* it to him, that he *may* stop if he *choose* ;" "I *mentioned* it to him, that he *might* stop if he *chose* ;" "I have *mentioned* it to him, that he *may* stop ;" "I *had* mentioned it to him, that he *might* stop ;" "I *had* mentioned it to him, that he *might have stopped*, had he *chosen*."

Note 1. When *should* is used instead of *ought*, to express *present* duty, § 20, 4, it may be followed by the present ; as, "You *should* study that you *may* become learned."

Note 2. The verb *had* is sometimes improperly used for *would* ; thus, "I *had* rather do it," should be, "I *would* rather do it."

Note 3. *Would* and *should* are sometimes, in common language, used as if they were almost expletives ; thus, "It *would* seem," for "It *seems*."

Obs. 5. The indicative present is frequently used after the words *when, till, before, as soon as, after*, to express the relative time of a

RULE XXIX. *Continued.*

future action ; (§ 24, I, 4,) as, "When he *comes*, he will be welcome." When placed before the perfect indicative, they denote the completion of a future action, or event ; as, "He will never be better till he *has* felt the pangs of poverty."

Obs. 6. A verb in the infinitive mood must be in the *present tense*, when it expresses what is *contemporary* in point of time with its governing verb, or *subsequent* to it ; as, "He appeared *to be* a man of letters ;" "The Apostles were determined *to preach* the gospel."

Obs. 7. But the perfect infinitive must be used to express what is *antecedent* to the time of the governing verb ; as, "Romulus is said *to have founded* Rome."

EXERCISES.

1. The doctor said, in his lecture, that fever always produced thirst. The philosopher said that heat always expanded metals. He said that truth was immutable.

2. I know the family more than twenty years. I am now at school six months. My brother was sick four weeks, and is no better. He tells lies long enough.

3. He has lately lost an only son. He has been formerly very disorderly. I have been at London last year, and seen the king last summer. I have once or twice told the story to our friend. He has done it before.

4. I should be obliged to him, if he will gratify me in that part particular. Ye will not come to me that ye might have life. Be wise and good that you might be happy. He was told his danger, that he may shun it.

(Note 1.) We should respect those persons because they continued long attached to us. He should study diligently that he might become learned. 2. I had rather go now than afterwards. He had better do it soon.

5. We shall welcome him when he shall arrive. As soon as he shall return, we will recommence our studies. A prisoner is not accounted guilty, till he be convicted.

6. From the little conversation I had with him, he appeared to have been a man of learning. Our friends intended to have met us. He was afraid he would have died.

7. Kirstall Abbey, now in ruins, appears to be an extensive building. Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver, is said to be born in the 926th year before Christ.

§ 79. RULE XXX. *When a member of a sentence refers to two different clauses, it should be equally applicable to both ; as, He has not been, and cannot be, censured for such conduct.*

This rule is often violated in sentences in which there are two comparisons of a different nature and government. Thus, "He was more beloved, but not so much admired as Cinthio." Here "*as Cinthio*," is applicable to the clause "*so much admired*," but cannot be connected with "*more beloved*." In such sentences, the proper way is to complete the construction of the first member, and leave that of the second understood ; as, "He was more beloved than Cinthio ; but not so much admired" (*as Cinthio*.)

A proper choice of words, and a perspicuous arrangement, should be carefully attended to.

EXERCISES.

This dedication may serve for almost any book that has, or ever shall be published. Will it be urged that these books are as old, or even older than tradition. He is more bold and active, but not so wise and studious as his companion. Sincerity is as valuable, and even more valuable, than knowledge. No person was ever so perplexed, or sustained the mortifications as he has done to-day. Neither has he, nor any other persons suspected so much dissimulation. The intentions of some of these philosophers, nay, of many, might and probably were good. The reward is due, and it has already, or will hereafter be given to him. This book is preferable and cheaper than the other. He either has, or will obtain the prize. He acted both suitably and consistently with his profession. The first proposal was essentially different and inferior to the second. He contrives better, but does not execute so well as his brother. There are principles in man which ever have, and ever will incline him to offend. The greatest masters of critical learning, differ and contend against one another. The winter has not, and probably will not be so severe as was expected. He is more friendly in his disposition, but not so distinguished for talents, as his brother.

§ 80. RULE XXXI. 1. *A substantive with a participle, forming an independent member of a sentence, is put in the nominative case absolute ; as, "He (not him) destroyed, all this will soon follow."*

2. *The person or thing addressed, without a verb, is put in the nominative independent ; as, Plato, thou reasonest well. I am, Sir, your humble servant.*

Obs. 1. In the *case absolute*, as the nominative and objective cases of nouns have the same form, there is liability to error only in the use of pronouns.

2. The substantive is sometimes understood ; as, Generally speaking, i. e. We. His conduct, viewing it in the most favourable light, reflects discredit on his character, i. e. we, men, or a person, viewing it, &c.

3. The infinitive mood is used absolutely to express the same idea ; as, To speak generally ; To view it in its most favourable light. See § 67, Rem. 2.

EXERCISES.

He made as wise proverbs as any body since, him only excepted. Them descending the ladder, fell. Whom being dead, we shall come. But them being absent, we cannot come to a determination.

————— Whose grey top
Shall tremble, him descending.

The bleating sheep with my complaints agree,
Them parched with heat, and me inflamed by thee.

Her quick relapsing to her former state,
With boding fears approach the sewing train.

There all thy gifts and graces we display,
Thee, only thee, directing all our way.

So great Æneas rushes to the fight,
Sprung from a god, and more than mortal bold,
Him fresh in youth, and me in arms grown old.

§ 81. RULE. XXXII. *The Article A is used before nouns in the singular number only. The is used before nouns in both numbers. A is indefinite. The is definite. (§ 4.)*

It is impossible to give a precise rule for the use of the article in every case. The best general rule is to observe what the sense requires. The following usages may be noticed.

1. The article is omitted before a noun that stands for a *whole species*; as, Man is mortal; and before the names of minerals, metals, arts, &c. Some nouns denoting the species, have the article always prefixed; as, The dog is a more grateful animal than the cat. The lion is a noble animal.

2. The last of two nouns after a comparative, should have no article when they both refer to one person or thing; as, He is a better reader than writer.

3. When two or more adjectives, or epithets, belong to the *same* subject, the article should be placed before the first, and omitted before the rest; as, A red and white rose, i. e. a rose, some parts of which are red, and others white. But when the adjectives, or epithets belong to different subjects, the article should be prefixed to each; as, a red and a white rose, i. e. a red rose and a white rose. "Johnson the bookseller and stationer," indicates that the bookseller and the stationer are epithets belonging to the same person; "the bookseller and the stationer" would indicate that they belong to different persons.

Note. The same remark may be made respecting the demonstrative pronouns; as, "That great and good man," means only *one* man. That great and that good man, means *two*; the one great, and the other good.

4. A nice distinction of the sense is sometimes made, by the use or omission of the article *a* before the words few, little. If I say, "He behaved with a little reverence," the expression is positive, and implies a degree of praise. But if I say, "He behaved with little reverence," the expression is negative, and implies a degree of blame.

5. *A* has sometimes the meaning of *every* or *each*; as, twelve shillings *a* dozen; two hundred pounds *a* year; i. e. every dozen, every year.

6. The antecedent to a restrictive clause is preceded by the definite article; as, "All *the* pupils *that* were present did well."

7. *The* is sometimes used before the comparative and superlative degrees both of adverbs and adjectives; as, *The more* I study grammar *the better* I like it.

RULE XXXII. *Continued.*

EXERCISES

ON THE IMPROPER USE AND OMISSION OF THE ARTICLES.

1. Reason was given to a man to control his passions. The gold is corrupting. A man is the noblest work of the creation. Wisest and best men are sometimes betrayed into errors. We must act our part with a constancy, though reward of our constancy be distant. There are some evils of life which equally affect prince and people. Purity has its seat in the heart, but extends its influence over so much of outward conduct as to form the great and material part of a character. At worst I could incur but a gentle reprimand. The profligate man is seldom or never found to be the good husband, the good father, or the beneficent neighbour.

2. A man may be a better soldier than a logician. There is much truth in the old adage that fire is a better servant than a master. He is not so good a poet as a historian.

3. Thomson the watchmaker and the jeweller from London, was of the party. A red and a white flag was displayed from the tower. A beautiful stream flows between the new and old mansion. A hot and cold spring were found in the same neighbourhood. The young and old man seem to be on good terms. The bill equally concerns the manufacturer and consumer.

4. He has been much censured for paying a little attention to his business. So bold a breach of order called for little severity in punishing the offender.

5. A shilling for every dozen is a moderate price. I would not undertake to walk twenty miles each day for three months. A guinea every week.

6. Persons who suffered by this calamity, have been much commiserated. Foreign travel, and things which he has seen, have enlarged his views. The proprietors are responsible for all parcels that are committed to their care. All persons who were consulted, were of this opinion. Members who do not appear, must be fined.

§ 82. RULE XXXIII. *An ellipsis or omission of words is admissible, when they can be supplied in the mind with such certainty and readiness as not to obscure the sense.* 'Thus, instead of saying, He was a learned man, and he was a wise man, and he was a good man; we say, He was a learned, wise, and good man.

Obs. It may be regarded as a rule proper to be kept steadily in view, that the fewer the words by which we can express our ideas, the better, provided the meaning be brought clearly out.

Rem. The auxiliaries of the compound tenses are often used alone, as, We have done it, but thou hast not; i. e. thou hast not *done* it.

The following phrases are elliptical: "To let out blood." "To go a hunting;" that is, "To go on a hunting excursion." "I dine at one o'clock;" that is, "I dine at one *of the* clock."

EXERCISES.

He sent me the books and the papers which he promised. He has a house and a garden in the country.—These counsels were the dictates of virtue and the dictates of true honour. Such conduct is contrary to the laws of God, and to the laws of man. His crimes brought him into extreme distress and into extreme perplexity. He was blessed with an affectionate father and an affectionate mother. His reputation and his estate are both lost by gaming. He is temperate, he is disinterested, he is benevolent. This is the man whom we met and whom we invited to our house. Genuine virtue supposes our benevolence and our usefulness to be strengthened and to be confirmed by principle. Perseverance in laudable pursuits will reward our toils and will produce effect beyond our expectation. We often commend imprudently as well as censure imprudently. Changes are often taking place in men and in manners, in opinions and in customs, in private fortunes and in public conduct. He insulted every man and every woman in the company.

(Rem.) He regards his word, but thou dost not regard it. They must be punished, and they shall be punished. We succeeded, but they did not succeed.

§ 83. RULE XXXIV. *An ellipsis is not allowable when it would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety ; for example, " We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen," should be, " We speak that which we do know, and testify that which we have seen."*

Obs. 1. In general, no word should be omitted that is necessary to the full and correct construction, or even harmony of a sentence. Articles, pronouns, and prepositions, should always be repeated when the words with which they stand connected are used emphatically. Even nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs, must often, under such circumstances, be repeated ; as, Not only *the* year, but *the* day and *the* hour were appointed.

2. It is generally improper (except in poetry,) to omit the antecedent to a relative ; and always to omit a relative when of the nominative case.

3. The article should be repeated, when a different form of it is required ; as, A horse and *an* ass.

EXERCISES.

I gladly shunned who gladly fled from me. His honour, interest, religion, were all embarked in this undertaking. The more I see of his conduct I like him better. It is not only the duty but interest of young persons to be studious and diligent. Without firmness, nothing that is great can be undertaken ; that is difficult or hazardous, accomplished. That species of commerce will produce great gain or loss. Many days and even weeks pass away unimproved. The people of this country possess a healthy climate and soil. I have purchased a house and orchard. His conduct is not scandalous, and that is the best can be said of it. The captain had several men died in his ship of scurvy. They enjoy also a free constitution and laws. That is a property most men have, or at least may attain. *A noble spirit disdaineth the malice of fortune ; his greatness of soul is not to be cast down. Charles was a man of learning, knowledge, and benevolence ; and what is more, a true christian.

* "A noble spirit," &c., should be, "A man of a noble spirit." It would be improper to speak of the *soul* of a *spirit*.

§ 84. SYNTACTICAL PARSING.

In syntactical parsing, the pupil should be directed to state the parts of speech, and the various accidents belonging to them, as directed in § 39; and in addition to this, to point out the relation in which each word stands to others with which it is connected in the sentence according to the Rules of Syntax. After stating these, (which should always be done in the same order, and in as few words as possible,) he should be requested to assign a reason for every thing contained in his statement, in some such manner as the following.

1. *Method of Syntactical Parsing, exemplified in each of the Parts of Speech.*

1. ——— is an *Article*, definite, (indefinite,) here put before the noun ———,

Quest. What is the use of this article? why definite? (—indefinite?)

Ans. It is put before ——— to shew the extent of its meaning. Because it points out a particular ———, (Because it does not, &c.)

2. ——— is a *Noun*, masc.* (fem. neut.) sing. (pl.) the nom. (poss. obj.)—is the nom. to the verb — (is governed by — according to Rule —)

Quest. How do you know it is a noun?—masc.?—sing.?—the nom?

Ans. Because it is the name of a thing,—is of the male sex,—denotes but one—is the subject of the verb —, or, is the person (or thing) spoken of.

3. ——— is an *Adjective*, positive degree, is compared regularly, (irregularly,—is not compared,) qualifies —

* In parsing nouns, pronouns, and verbs, it is quite unnecessary to repeat the words, "gender," "number," "mood," "tense;" thus, masculine gender, singular number, &c.; the meaning being sufficiently indicated by the terms, masculine, feminine, neuter—singular, plural—indicative, potential, &c.—present, past, future, &c.; and it has the advantage of saving much time. For the same reason, it may be proper to omit the terms, "proper" and "common," before nouns, and the conjugation of all regular verbs. When the verb is passive, parse thus. "A verb trans. in the passive voice, regular, irregular," &c. See § 19, Obs. 7. and also in the following "Specimen," No. 2, questions may be put, and answers rendered as here.

Quest. How do you know it is an adjective? (why not compared?)

Ans. Because it expresses a quality of — Because it denotes, &c., see § 13, Obs. 4.

4. — is a *Personal Pronoun*, 1st. person, (2d or 3d) masc. (fem.) sing. the nom. (poss. obj.) is the nom. to — — (is gov'd by — R. —)

Quest. How do you know it is a pronoun?—is the 1st pers.? (2d?—3d?)—masc.?—sing.?—the nom.? Decline it.

Ans. Because it stands instead of a noun, viz.—, it denotes the person speaking, (spoken to,—spoken of,)—is of the male sex,—denotes one,—is the subject of the verb —

— is a *Relative Pronoun*, 1st. pers. (2d. 3d.) masc.—sing.—the nom. (—the objective governed by — R. —)—agrees with its antecedent — R. xi. “The relative agrees, &c.”

Quest. How do you know it is a relative?— of the 1st pers.? (2d? 3d?)—masc.?—sing.?—the nom.?

Ans. Because it relates to — its antecedent,—Because its antecedent is the 1st pers.—(2d.—3d.)—is masc.—is sing. Because it is the subject of the verb —

5. — is a *Verb* trans., (intransitive) (irreg. conjugated thus) in the —tense,—mood, 1st pers. (2d. 3d.)—sing. (pl.) agrees with its nom. —; Rule I. “A verb must agree, &c.”

Quest. How do you know it is a verb? transitive? (intransitive?) regular? (irreg.?) of the — person?

Ans. Because it affirms of its nom. —: Because it expresses an act done to an object, or, it admits an objective after it, (intr. because it does not express an act done to an object; or, it does not admit an objective after it) “reg.” because its imperfect tense and perfect participle end in *ed* (irreg. because they do not end in *ed*) “1st pers. sing. or pl.” (2d or 3d. pers. sing. or pl.) because its nom. — is in the 1st pers., &c., according to Rule I. “A verb must agree, &c.”

6. — is an *Adverb*, and modifies —

Quest. How do you know it is an adverb? Is it compared? compare it.

Ans. Because it modifies the meaning of the verb —— adjective ——, &c.

7. —— is a *Preposition*. *Quest.* How do you know? *Ans.* Because it expresses the relation in which the noun —— stands to the noun; —— (or the verb ——).

8. —— is an *Interjection*, Because it expresses a sudden emotion of ——

9. —— is a *Conjunction*, Because it connects the words —— and ——; or the sentences —— and ——

2. SPECIMEN OF SYNTACTICAL PARSING.

PSALM cxi. 10. “The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom, and a good understanding have all they that do his commandments: His praise endureth forever.”

The is the definite article, put before *fear*.

Fear is a noun, neuter, singular, and is the nominative to (or subject of) *is*.

Of is a preposition, it expresses the relation between *fear* and *Lord*.

Lord is a noun, masculine, singular, the objective governed by *of*.

Rule III. “Prepositions govern,” &c.

Is is a verb, intrans., irregular—am, was, been; it is in the present, indicative, third person singular, and agrees with its nominative *fear*. Rule I. “A verb agrees,” &c.

Beginning is a noun, neuter, singular, in the nominative; it is put after *is*, in the same case with *fear*. Rule XIII.

And is a conjunction, (copulative;) it connects the two simple sentences, “The fear of the Lord,” &c. and “a good understanding,” &c. (The connexion here being between the simple sentences, and not between any verbs, or nouns, or pronouns, in them, the Rule § 69 does not apply.)

A is the indefinite article, put before *understanding*.

Good is an adjective, positive degree, qualifies *understanding*, and is compared irregularly, thus, Good, better, best.

Understanding is a noun, neuter, singular, in the objective, governed by *have*. Rule II. “An active verb,” &c.

Have is a verb transitive, irregular—have, had, had ;—in the present indicative, active, third person plural, agreeing with *they*. Rule I. “A verb must agree,” &c.

All is an adjective pronoun, (indefinite ;) qualifies *they*.

They is a substantive pronoun, third person, masculine, plural, in the nominative ; is the nominative to *have*, and stands for *men*. Rule x. It is thus declined, &c.

That is a relative pronoun, here used for *who*, according to Rule xi. Rem. 3. It is related to *they* as its antecedent.

Do is a verb transitive, irregular—do, did, done ;—it is in the present, indicative, active, third person, plural, and agrees with *that*. Rule I. “A verb must agree,” &c.

His is an adjective pronoun (possessive,) agrees with *commandments*.

Commandments is a noun, neuter, plural, in the objective, governed by *do*. Rule II. “A transitive verb,” &c.

Praise is a noun, neuter, singular, the nominative ; is the nominative to *endureth*.

Endureth is a verb intransitive, regular,—in the present, indicative, active,—third person singular, and agrees with *praise*. Rule I. “A verb agrees,” &c.

Forever is an adverb, and modifies *endureth*. Rule xxiv.

§ 85. PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

ON THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

NOTE.—The following exercises, after being corrected, or in the time of correcting, may be used as exercises in Syntactical Parsing.

1. John writes pretty. I shall never do so no more. The train of our ideas are often interrupted. Was you present at last meeting? He need not be in so much haste. He dare not act otherwise than he does. Him whom they seek is in the house. George or I is the person. They or he is much to be blamed. The troop consist of fifty men. Those set of books was a valuable present. That pillar is sixty foot high. His conduct evinced the most extreme vanity. These trees are remarkable tall. He acted bolder than was expected. This is he who I gave the book to. Eliza always appears amiably. Who do you lodge with now? He was born at London, but he died in Bath. If he be sincere I am satisfied. Her father and

her were at church. The master requested him and I to read more distinctly. It is no more but his due. Flatterers flatter as long, and no longer than they have expectations of gain. John told the same story as you told. This is the largest tree which I have ever seen.

2. Let he and I read the next chapter. She is free of pain. Those sort of dealings are unjust. David the son of Jesse was the youngest of his brothers. You was very kind to him, he said. Well, says I, what does thou think of him now? James is one of those boys that was kept in at school, for bad behaviour. Thou, James, did deny the deed. Neither good nor evil come of themselves. We need not to be afraid. He expected to have gained more by the bargain. You should drink plenty of goat milk. It was him who spoke first. Do you like ass milk? Is it me that you mean? Who did you buy your grammar from? If one takes a wrong method at first setting out, it will lead them astray. Neither man nor woman were present. I am more taller than you. She is the same lady who sang so sweetly. After the most straitest sect of our religion, I lived a Pharisee. Is not thy wickedness great? and thine iniquities infinite?—There was more sophists than one. If a person have lived twenty or thirty years, he should have some experience. If this were his meaning, the prediction has failed. Fidelity and truth is the foundation of all justice. His associates in wickedness will not fail to mark the alteration of his conduct. Thy rod and thy staff they comfort me.

3. And when they had lift up their eyes, they saw no man, save Jesus only. Strive not with a man without cause, if he have done thee no harm. I wrote to, and cautioned the captain against it. Now both the chief priests and Pharisees had given a commandment, that if any man knew where he were, he should show it, that they might take him. The girl, her book is torn in pieces. It is not me who he is in love with. He which commands himself, commands the whole world. Nothing is more lovelier than virtue.

4. The peoples happiness is the statesmans honor.—

Changed to a worser shape thou canst not be. I have drunk no spirituous liquors this six years. He is taller than me, but I am stronger than him. Solid peace and contentment consists neither in beauty or riches, but in the favor of God. After who is the King of Israel come out? The reciprocations of love and friendship between he and I, have been many and sincere. Abuse of mercies ripen us for judgment. Peter and John is not at school to-day. Three of them was taken into custody. To study diligently, and behave genteelly, is commendable. The enemies who we have most to fear are those of our own hearts. Regulus was reckoned the most consummate warrior which Rome could then produce. Suppose life never so long, fresh accessions of knowledge may still be made.

5. Surely thou who reads so much in the Bible, can tell me what became of Elijah. Neither the master nor the scholars is reading. Trust not him, whom, you know, is dishonest. I love no interests but that of truth and virtue. Every imagination of the thoughts of the heart are evil continually. No one can be blamed for taking due care of their health. They crucified him, and two others with him, on either side one, and Jesus in the midst. None can be blamed for taking care of his health.

6. I have read Popes Homer, and Drydens Virgil. He that is diligent you should commend. There was an earthquake which made the earth to tremble. And God said to Solomon, Wisdom and knowledge is granted unto thee, &c. I cannot commend him for justifying himself when he knows that his conduct was so very improper. He was very much made on at school. Though he were a son, yet learned he obedience by the things which he suffered. If he is alone tell him the news; but if there is any body with him, do not tell him. They ride faster than us. Though the measure be mysterious, it is worthy of attention. If he does but approve my endeavors, it will be an ample reward. Was it him who came last? Yes, it was him.

For ever in this humble cell,
Let thee and I my fair one dwell.

7. Every man should act suitable to his character and station in life. His arguments were exceeding clear. I only spoke three words on that subject. The ant and the bee sets a good example before drowsy boys. Neither in this world, neither in the world to come. Evil communications corrupts good manners. Hannibal was one of the greatest generals whom the world ever saw. The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageously situated for gaining of wisdom.

8. These are the rules of grammar, by the observing which you may avoid mistakes. The king conferred upon him the title of a duke. My exercises are not well wrote, I do not hold my pen well. Grammar teaches us to speak proper. She accused her companion for having betrayed her. I will not dissent with her. Nothing shall make me swerve out of the path of duty and honor. Who shall I give it to? Who are you looking for? It is a diminution to, or a derogation of their judgment. It fell into their notice or cognizance. She values herself for her fortune. That is a book which I am much pleased with. I have been to see the coronation, and a fine sight it was. That picture of the emperor's is a very exact resemblance of him. Every thing that we here enjoy, change, decay, and come to an end. It is not him they blame so much.

9. No people has more faults than they that pretend to have none. The laws of Draco is said to have been wrote with blood. It is so clear, or so obvious, as I need not explain it. She taught him and I to read. The more greater a bad man's accomplishments are, the more dangerous he is to society, and the more less fit for a companion. Each has their own faults, and every one should endeavor to correct their own. Let your promises be few, and such that you can perform.

10. His being at an enmity with Cæsar and Antony were the cause of perpetual discord. Their being forced to their books in an age at enmity with all restraint, have been the reason why many have hated books all their lives. There was a coffee-house at that end of the town, in which several gentlemen used to meet of an evening. Do not despise the state of the poor, lest it becomes your own condition.

It was his duty to have interposed his authority in an affair of so much importance. He spent his whole life in the doing good. Every gentleman who frequented the house, and conversed with the erectors of this occasional club, were invited to pass an evening when they thought fit. The winter has not been so severe as we expected it to have been. The rest (of the stars) in circuit walls this universe. Sir, if thou have borne him hence, tell me where thou hast laid him.

11. A lampoon, or a satire, does not carry in them robbery or murder. She and you were not mistaken in her conjectures. My sister and I, as well as my brother, are employed in their respective occupations. He repents him of that indiscreet action. It was me, and not him, that wrote it. Art thou him? I shall take care that no one shall suffer no injury. I am a man who approves of wholesome discipline, and who recommend it to others; but I am not a person who promotes severity, or who object to mild and generous treatment. This Jackanapes has hit me in a right place enough. Prosperity, as truly asserted by Seneca, it very much obstructs the knowledge of ourselves. To do to others as we would that they should do to us, it is our duty. This grammar was purchased at Ogle's the bookseller's. The council was not unanimous.

12. Who spilt the ink upon the table? Him. Who lost this book? Me. Whose pen is this? Johns. There is in fact no impersonal verbs in any language. And he spitted on the ground and anointed his eyes. Had I never seen ye, I had never known ye. The ship Mary and Ann were restored to their owners. If we consult the improvement of mind, or the health of body, it is well known exercise is the great instrument for promoting both. A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a description.

13. I had no sooner placed her at my right hand, by the fire, but she opened to me the reason of her visit. A prudent wife, she shall be blessed. The house you speak of, it cost me five hundred pounds. Did I not tell thee, O thee infamous wretch! that thou wouldst bring me to ruin?

Not only the counsel's and attorney's, but the judge's opinion also, favored his cause. It was the men's, women's, and children's lot, to suffer great calamities. That is the eldest son of the King of England's. Lord Feversham's the general's tent. This palace had been the Grand Sultan's Mahomet's. They did not every man cast away the abomination of their eyes.

14. *I am purposed. He is arrived. They were deserted from their regiment. Whose works are these? They are Cicero, the most eloquent of men's. The mighty rivals are now at length agreed. The time of William making the experiment, at length arrived. If we alter the situation of any of the words, we shall presently be sensible of the melody suffering. This picture of the king's does not much resemble him. These pictures of the king were sent to him from Italy. He who committed the offence, thou shouldst correct, not I, who am innocent.

15. But, Thomas, one of the twelve, called Didymus, was not with them when Jesus came. I offer observations, that a long and chequered pilgrimage have enabled me to make on man. After I visited Europe, I returned to America. Clelia is a vain woman, whom, if we do not flatter, she will be disgusted. In his conduct was treachery, and in his words faithless professions. The orators did not forget to enlarge themselves on so popular a subject. He acted conformable with his instructions, and cannot be censured justly.

16. No person could speak stronger on this subject, nor behave nobler, than our young advocate, for the cause of toleration. They were studious to ingratiate with those who it was dishonorable to favor. The house framed a remonstrance, where they spoke with great freedom of the king's prerogative. Neither flatter or condemn the rich or the great. Many would exchange gladly their honors, beauty, and riches, for that more quiet and humbler station, which thou art now dissatisfied with. High hopes, and

* Rule.—It is improper to use a neuter verb in the passive form. Thus, I am purposed—He is arrived; should be, I have purposed—He has arrived—From this rule there are a number of exceptions; for it is allowable to say, He is come. One is gone, &c. § 49, 11.

florid views, is a great enemy to tranquillity. Many persons will not believe but what they are free from prejudices. I will lay me down in peace, and take my rest. This word I have only found in Spencer. The king being apprized of the conspiracy, he fled from Jerusalem.

17. A too great variety of studies dissipate and weaken the mind. James was resolved to not indulge himself in such a cruel amusement. They admired the countryman's, as they called him, candor and uprightness. The pleasure or pain of one passion, differ from those of another. The court of Spain, who gave the order, were not aware of the consequences. There was much spoke and wrote on each side of the question; but I have chose to suspend my decision.

18. Religion raises men above themselves; irreligion sinks them beneath the brutes; that binds them down to a poor pitiable speck of perishable earth; this opens for them a prospect to the skies. Temperance and exercise, howsoever little they may be regarded, they are the best means of preserving health. To despise others on account of their poverty, or to value ourselves for our wealth, are dispositions highly culpable. This task was the easier performed, from the cheerfulness with which he engaged in it. These counsels were the dictates of virtue, and the dictates of true honor. As his misfortunes were the fruit of his own obstinacy, a few persons pitied him. And they were judged every man according to their works. Riches is the bane of human happiness. I wrote to my brother before I received his letter.

19. When Garrick appeared, Peter was for some time in doubt whether it could be him or not. Are you living contented in spiritual darkness? The company was very numerous. Shall the throne of iniquity have fellowship with thee, which frameth mischief by a law? Where is the security that evil habits will be ever broken? They each bring material to the place. Nor let no comforter delight my ear. She was six years older than him. They were obliged to contribute more than us. The Barons had little more to rely on, besides the power of their families. The sewers (shores) must be kept so clear,

as the water may run away. Such among us who follow that profession. No body is so sanguine to hope for it. She behaved unkindly than I expected. Agreeable to your request I send this letter. She is exceeding fair. Thomas is not as docile as his sister. There was no other book but this. He died by a fever. Among whom was Mary Magdalene, and Mary the mother of James. My sister and I waited till they were called. The army were drawn up in haste. The public is respectfully informed that, &c. The friends and amusements which he preferred corrupted his morals. Each must answer for themselves. Henry, though at first he showed an unwillingness, yet afterwards he granted his request.

20. Him and her live very happily together. She invited Jane and I to see her new dress. She uttered such cries that pierced the heart of every one who heard them. Maria is not as clever as her sister Ann. Though he promises ever so solemnly, I will not believe him. The full moon was no sooner up, in all its brightness, but he opened to them the gate of paradise. It rendered the progress very slow of the new invention. This book is 'Thomas', that is James'. Socrates's wisdom has been the subject of many a conversation. Fare thee well, James. Who, who has the judgment of a man, would have drawn such an inference? George was the most diligent scholar whom I ever knew. I have observed some children to use deceit. He durst not to displease his master. The hopeless delinquents might, each in their turn, adopt the expostulatory language of Job. Several of our English words, some centuries ago, had different meanings to those they have now. And I was afraid, and went and hid thy talent in the earth; lo, there thou hast that is thine. With this booty he made off to a distant part of the country, where he had reason to believe that neither he nor his master were known. 'Thine is the kingdom, the power, and the glory. I have been at London.

21. Which of the two masters, says Seneca, shall we most esteem?—he who strives to correct his scholars by prudent advice and motives of honor, or another who will lash them severely for not repeating their lessons as they

ought? The blessing of the Lord it maketh rich, and he addeth no sorrow with it. For if there be first a willing mind, it is accepted according to that a man hath, and not according to that he hath not. If a brother or a sister be naked and destitute of daily food, and one of you say unto them, Depart in peace, be ye warmed and filled; notwithstanding if ye give them not those things which are needful to the body; what doth it profit?

22. But she always behaved with great severity to her maids; and if any of them were negligent of their duty, or made a slip in their conduct, nothing would serve her but burying the poor girls alive. He had no master to instruct him; he had read nothing but the writings of Moses and the prophets, and had received no lessons from the Socrates's,* the Plato's, and the Confucius's of the age. They that honor me, I will honor. For the poor always ye have with you.

23. The first Christians of the Gentile world made a simple and entire transition from a state as bad, if not worse, than that of entire ignorance, to the Christianity of the New Testament.

And he said unto Gideon, every one that lappeth of the water with his tongue, as a dog lappeth, him shalt thou set by himself.

The duke had not behaved with that loyalty as was expected.

Milton seems to have been well acquainted with his own genius, and to know what it was that nature had bestowed upon him more bountifully than upon others.

24. And on the morrow, because he would have known the certainty wherefore he was accused † by the Jews, he loosed him from his bonds.

Here rages force, here tremble flight and fear,
Here stormed contention, and here fury frowned.
The Cretan javelin reached him from afar,
And pierced his shoulder as he mounts his car.

Nor is it then a welcome guest, affording only an uneasy

* The *Possessive case* must not be used for the *plural* number. In this quotation from Baron Haller's Letters to his Daughter, the proper names should have been pluralized like common nouns; thus, From the *Socrateses*, the *Platoes*, and the *Confuciuses* of the age.

† *Accuse* requires *of* before the *crime*, and *by* before the *person* accusing.

sensation, and brings always with it a mixture of concern and compassion.

He only* promised me a loan of the book for two days. I was once thinking to have written a poem.

25. A very slow child will often be found to get lessons by heart as soon as, nay sometimes sooner, than one who is ten times as intelligent.

It is then from a cultivation of the perceptive faculties, that we only can attain those powers of conception which are essential to taste.

No man is fit for free conversation for the inquiry after truth, if he be exceedingly reserved; if he be haughty and proud of his knowledge; if he be positive and dogmatical in his opinions; if he be one who always affects to outshine all the company; if he be fretful and peevish; if he affect wit, and is full of puns, or quirks, or quibbles.

26. Conversation is the business, and let every one that please add their opinion freely.

The mean suspicious wretch whose bolted door
Ne'er moved in pity to the wandering poor;
With him I left the cup to teach his mind,
That heaven can bless if mortals will be kind.

There are many more shining qualities in the mind of man, but there is none so useful as discretion.

Mr. Lock having been introduced by Lord Shaftsbury to the Duke of Buckingham and Lord Halifax, these three noblemen, instead of conversing with the philosopher on literary subjects, in a very short time sat down to cards.

BAD ARRANGEMENT.

27. It is your light fantastic fools, who have neither heads nor hearts, in both sexes, who, by dressing their bodies out of all shape, render themselves ridiculous and contemptible.

And how can brethren hope to partake of their parent's blessing that curse each other.

The superiority of others over us, though in trivial concerns, never fails to mortify our vanity, and give us vexation, as Nicol admirably observes.

* This sentence expresses one meaning as it stands. It may be made to express other four by placing *only* after *me*, or *loan*, or *book*, or *days*.

Likewise also the chief priests, mocking, said among themselves, with the scribes, He saved others ; himself he cannot save.

Noah, for his godliness, and his family, were the only persons preserved from the flood.

It is an unanswerable argument of a very refined age, the wonderful civilities that have passed between the nation of authors, and that of readers.

And they said among themselves, who shall roll us away the stone from the door of the sepulchre. And when they had looked, they saw that the stone was rolled away : for it was very great.

A great stone that I happened to find, after a long search, by the sea-shore, served me for an anchor.

It is true what he says, but it is not applicable to the point.

BAD ARRANGEMENT.*

28. The senate of Rome ordered that no part of it should be rebuilt ; it was demolished to the ground, so that travellers are unable to say where Carthage stood at this day.

Thus ended the war with Antiochus, twelve years after the second Punic war, and two after it had been begun.

Upon the death of Claudius, the young Emperor Nero pronounced his funeral oration, and he was canonized among the gods, who scarcely deserved the name of a man.

Galerius abated much of his severities against the Christians on his death-bed, and revoked those edicts which he had formerly published, tending to their persecution, a little before his death.

The first care of Aurelius was to marry his daughter Lucilla once more to Claudius Pompeianus, a man of moderate fortune, &c.

But at length, having made his guards accomplices in their design, they set upon Maximin while he slept at noon in his tent, and slew both him and his son, whom

* The exercises under this head are all extracted from the octavo edition of Goldsmith's Roman History, from which many more might be obtained

he had made his partner in the empire, without any opposition.

Aurelian defeated the Marcomanni, a fierce and terrible nation of Germany, that had invaded Italy, in three several engagements.

AMBIGUITY.

29. You suppose him younger than I.

This may mean, either that you suppose him younger than I *am*, or that you suppose him to be younger than I suppose him to be.

Parmenio had served, with great fidelity, Philip, the father of Alexander, as well as himself, for whom he first opened the way into Asia.

Here we are apt to suppose the word *himself* refers to Parmenio, and means that he had not only served *Philip*, but he had served *himself* at the same time. This, however, is not the meaning of the passage. If we arrange it thus, the meaning will appear. "Parmenio had not only served Philip the father of Alexander with great fidelity, but he had served *Alexander himself*, and was the first that opened the way for him into Asia."

Belisarius was general of all the forces under the emperor Justinian the First, a man of rare valor.

Who was a man of rare valor? The *emperor Justinian* we should suppose, from the arrangement of the words; but this is not the case, for it was *Belisarius*. The sentence should have stood thus, "Belisarius, a man of rare valor, was general of all the forces under the emperor Justinian the First."

Lisias promised to his father never to abandon his friends.

Whether were they his *own* friends or his *father's* whom Lisias promised never to abandon? If his *own*, it should be, Lisias promised and said to his father, I will never abandon *my* friends. If his *father's*, it should be, Lisias promised and said to his father, I will never abandon *your* friends.

§ 86. MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS.

1. Many writers use a *plural noun* after the second of two numeral adjectives, thus, "The first and second pages are torn." According to analogy it should rather be, The first and second *page*. Thus we say, "The new and the old world," "Ancient and modern history," &c.

2. *Another*,—*One*,—*Every*.

Another corresponds to *one*; but not to *some*, nor to *every*. Thus, "Handed down from *every* writer of verses to *another*," should be, "From *one* writer of verses to *another*." "At *some* hour or *another*," should be, "At some hour or *other*."

One is often used in familiar phrases, (like *on* in French.) for we, or any one of us, indiscriminately; thus, "*One* is often more influenced by example than by precept." The verb and pronoun with which *one* agrees, should be *singular*; Thus, "If *one* take a wrong method at first, it will lead *them* astray;" should be, "it will lead *one* astray, or him astray."

3. *As follows*,—*As regards*,—*As appears*, &c.

Dr. Campbell and Mr. Murray regard these, and several other expressions of a similar kind, as impersonal verbs, and are of opinion that they should always be used in the singular. This, however, is contrary to the established usage of our best writers, who frequently use them in the plural form; as, "The circumstances were as follow." Other Grammarians, and particularly Dr. Crombie, (Etymology p. 389 et seq.) consider *as* to be a relative pronoun, and that the verb following it should be singular or plural, according as its antecedent is in the singular or plural number, Thus, "His description was as follows," i. e. "was this which follows." "His words were as follow," i. e. "were those which follow." Neither of these explanations seems to be entirely satisfactory. It is perhaps better to regard such phrases as elliptical, and in parsing to supply the ellipsis thus, "The words were such as those which follow," or, "were the same as those which follow."

As concerns, *as regards*, used commonly in the singular, are also elliptical, and may be supplied thus, "As it concerns," or "As far as it concerns, regards," &c., as (it) appears, is always in the singular. In the plural, the noun or pronoun is commonly expressed thus, "These things as they concern," or, "as far as *they* concern us"—or, "As far as these things concern us," &c. In this way, there is no necessity for considering these expres-

sions as impersonal verbs, nor for depriving *as* of its conjunctive character.

4. *So* and *Such*.

When we refer to the *species* or *nature* of a thing, the word *such* is properly applied; as, "Such a temper is seldom found." But when *degree* is signified, we use the word *so*; as, "So bad a temper is seldom found." Yet *so* is hardly ever used before an adjective followed by a plural noun. In this case, *such* is used instead of it, to express degree. Thus, we say, "*Such* beautiful flowers I have seldom seen," not, "*so* beautiful flowers." Still it would be correct to say, "I have never seen flowers *so* beautiful."

5. *Disappointed of*,—*Disappointed in*.

We are *disappointed of* a thing when we expect it and do not get it—and *disappointed in* it, when we have it and it does not answer our expectations. Hence a person may be *disappointed in* that which he is not *disappointed of*.

6. *Taste of*, and *Taste for*.

A *taste of* a thing, implies actual enjoyment of it; but a *taste for* it, implies only capacity for enjoyment; as, "When we have had a true *taste of* the pleasures of virtue, we can have no relish *for* those of vice." "He had a *taste for* such studies, and pursued them earnestly."

7. *Position of Adjectives*.

Adjectives should be placed next their substantives. Thus, it is incorrect to say, "a new pair of shoes," "a fine field of corn," "a good glass of wine," &c. because the adjectives in these sentences qualify "shoes," "corn," "wine," and not "pair," "field," "glass," with which they are joined. The phrases should be, "A pair of new shoes." "A field of fine corn." "A glass of good wine."

8. *But that*.

But is often improperly used before *that*, after words which imply doubt or fear; as, "I doubt not *but that* he will fulfil his promise." This would seem to say, "I doubt nothing save one thing, namely, that he will fulfil his promise;" whereas, that is the very thing not doubted. Remove the *but*, and you preserve the sense.

9. *Older, Oldest,—Elder, Eldest.*

Older and *oldest* refer to maturity of age, *elder* and *eldest* to priority of right by birth. Thus, "Homer is an older author than Virgil." "Being the eldest of the family, he succeeded to the estate."

10. *Farther and Farthest,—Further and Furthest.*

Farther and *farthest* denote place or distance; *Further* and *furthest*, quantity or addition; as, "The farther they advanced, the more interesting was the scene." "I have nothing further to say on this subject." *Farther* is the comparative, and *farthest*, the superlative of *far*; *Further* and *furthest*, of *fore* or *forth*.

11. *Later, latest,—Latter, last,—Next, nearest.*

Later and *latest*, compared from late, have respect to time; *latter* and *last*, to place or position, and are employed without so direct a reference to comparison. *Next* refers either to time or place; *nearest*, to place only.

12. *Past, passed.*

Past is an adjective; *passed*, the past tense or perfect participle of the verb, and they ought not, as is frequently done, to be confounded with each other.

13. *Lay, lie,—Set, sit.*

Lay and *lie* are distinct in meaning and application, and cannot be used indiscriminately. The use of the former for the latter is an error exceedingly prevalent, and should be corrected. Thus we constantly hear such expressions as, "It lays on the table." "It laid there yesterday." *Lie* is a neuter verb; *Lay* is active, and means to *make lie*. The past tense of *lie*, is *lay*, and perf. participle, *lain*. The past tense of *lay*, is *laid*, and perf. participle, *laid*. Thus, The bricklayer *lays* bricks, and being laid, they lie. The book lies on the shelf; it was laid there a week ago, and has lain ever since. The same distinction should be observed between *set* and *sit*.

14. "Be that as it *will*," is a common, but inaccurate expression. It ought to be, "Be that as it *may*," or *may* have been.

15. "*Seldom* or *ever*" is not correct. It should be *seldom* or *never*; or, *seldom* if *ever*.

§ 87. A LIST OF IMPROPER EXPRESSIONS.

SELECTED CHIEFLY FROM PICKERING'S VOCABULARY.

I should <i>admire</i> to go to sea.	I should like to go to sea.
I <i>allot</i> upon going.	I intend to go.
The <i>alone</i> God. The <i>alone</i> motive.	The <i>one</i> God. The <i>only</i> motive.
I <i>an't</i> ; you <i>an't</i> ; he <i>an't</i> , &c.	I am not; you are not; he is not, &c.
<i>Any manner</i> of means.	Any means.
His discourse was <i>approved</i> .	His discourse was approved.
To sell <i>at auction</i> .	To sell by auction.
He was walking <i>back and forth</i> .	—— backwards and forwards.
Part were good, <i>the balance</i> were bad.	—— the remainder, or the rest were bad.
His argument was <i>based</i> on this fact.	His argument was founded on this fact.
Where <i>be</i> you? Here I <i>be</i> .	Where are you? Here I am.
The money was <i>ordered paid</i> .	The money was ordered to be paid
I would not <i>belittle</i> or <i>demean</i> myself.	I would not degrade myself.
He was paid for his <i>betterments</i> .	He was paid for his improvements.
I <i>calculate</i> to leave town soon.	I intend to leave town soon.
A <i>chunk</i> of bread.	A piece of bread.
A <i>clever*</i> house.	A good house.
He <i>conducts well</i> .	He conducts himself well, respectably.
He is <i>considerable</i> of a scholar.	He is a pretty good scholar.
His farm was <i>convenient</i> to mine.	His farm was contiguous to mine, close
The <i>creatures†</i> must be sent to pasture.	The cattle must be sent to pasture.
<i>Curious</i> apples; <i>curious</i> cider, &c.	Excellent apples; excellent cider, &c.
He is a <i>decent</i> scholar, writer.	He is a pretty good scholar, writer.
Her situation was <i>distressing</i> to a degree.	—— was extremely distressing.
Such conduct was very <i>derogatory</i> .	—— was very degrading.
A total <i>destitution</i> of capacity.	A total want of capacity.
The United States, or <i>either</i> of them.	The United States, or any of them.
<i>Equally as well</i> —as good, &c.	Equally well, or just as well, &c.
Mr. A—— B——, Esq.	A—— B——, Esq.
I think it will <i>eventuate</i> in this.	—— will end, or terminate, in this.
I <i>expect‡</i> they be.	I believe they are.
I <i>expect</i> he must have died long ago.	I think he must have died, &c.
These things are in a <i>bad fix</i> .	—— in a bad state, or condition.
Will you <i>fix</i> these things for me?	Will you put these things in order for me?
<i>Firstly</i> , secondly, thirdly, &c.	<i>First</i> , secondly, &c.
How do your <i>folks</i> do?	How is your family?
What do <i>folks</i> think of it?	What do people think of it?
Will you <i>go by</i> and dine with me?	Will you <i>go by my house</i> and dine?
Talents of the highest <i>grade</i> .	Talents of the highest order.
Do you love play? I <i>guess‡</i> I do.	—— there is no doubt of that.
You will tell another <i>guess</i> (guise) story soon.	—— another kind of story.
We may <i>hope</i> the assistance of God.	We may hope for the assistance of God.
A <i>horse colt</i> ; A <i>mare colt</i> .	A colt: A filly.
It would <i>illy</i> accord.	It would ill accord.
When did you come <i>in</i> town.	When did you come into town. § 77.
	Obs. 2.
In good <i>case</i> ; or <i>keller</i> .	In good condition, good order.
Where do you <i>keep</i> ?— <i>put up</i> ?	At whose house do you stay?
A <i>lengthy</i> sermon, &c.	A long sermon, &c.

* The word *clever*, applied to persons, in the English sense, means *active, quick, ingenious*; in the American sense, *of a kind, obliging disposition*.

† This word, in the northern states, is a general term for horses, cattle, sheep, swine, &c.

‡ *Expect* is properly applied to things to come; *guess*, to things uncertain never to things present, or about which there is no doubt.

Why don't you strike *like* I do ?
 He is a *very likely* man.
 Will you *loan* me a few dollars ?
 I was *mad* at him.
Mighty cold ; *mighty* fine.
 The public are hereby *notified*.
Obnoxious † doctrines.
 He will *once in a while* get drunk.
 He went up *on to* the roof.
 What *had that ought to be* ?
Over the signature of Junius. ‡
 He still *plead* not guilty.
 They are not very *plenty*.
 He is rather *poorly*.
Predicated on former proceedings.
 The work *progresses* slowly.
Not proven.
 I was *raised* in Virginia.
 A committee was *raised*.
 The price will *raise* soon.
 I *reckon* he will.
 The council *resulted*, that, &c.
 Such doctrines *revolt* us.
 A *rugged* child.
 I *sat* out on my journey.
 The market is full of *sauce*.
 You have too much *sauce*.
 I *see* him, I *seen* him yesterday.
Serious people.
 He is *some* better than he was.
 I have had a *spell* of sickness.
 Be *spry*. He is a *springy* man.
 He shews much *temper*. ||
 He is an *ugly* fellow.
 For the construction of *wharves*.

—— as I do, or, like as I do
 He is a very good looking man.
 —— lend me a few dollars.
 I was angry with him.
 Very cold ; very fine.
 Notice is hereby given.
 Hurtful or offensive doctrines.
 —— sometimes get drunk.
 He went up to the roof.
 What should that be ?
 Under the signature of Junius.
 —— pleaded not guilty.
 They are not very plentiful.
 —— rather indisposed.
 Founded on former proceedings.
 The work advances slowly.
 Not proved.
 I was brought up in V.
 —— was formed or appointed.
 —— will rise soon.
 I suppose he will.
 —— came to the conclusion, that, &c
 We revolt at such doctrines.
 A robust or healthy child.
 I set out, &c.
 —— full of vegetables.
 —— too much impertinence.
 I saw him yesterday.
 Religious people.
 —— somewhat better.
 I have been sick for some time
 Be quick. An active man.
 —— much warmth of temper.
 —— a fellow of bad disposition.
 —— of wharfs.

* *Notify* signifies to make known, "to notify the public," therefore, is "to make the public known." We notify a thing to a person, and not a person of a thing.

† *Obnoxious* signifies liable to, and should not be used for hurtful or offensive.

‡ On this expression, Pickering remarks : "A few of our writers still countenance this unwarrantable innovation ; but the principle on which it is defended would unsettle the whole language." We might with equal propriety say, "Given over my hand and seal." "It is so well known to be the constant practice of the best English and American writers to say, 'under a name, and under a signature,' that it will hardly be credited that any who speak the English language could have questioned the propriety of it." The term *under*, in such phrases, is figurative, and means, under the sanction, authority, or responsibility of. It has nothing to do with the mere relative position of the writing, and the name or signature attached to it ;—a circumstance in itself of no consequence whatever, but which, nevertheless, is all that the term *over* is capable of expressing.

|| *Temper*, in the American sense, means warmth of temper, passion. In England it means "moderation, coolness." In this sense the words *temperate* and *intemperate* are always understood.

§ 88. PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, in order to convey to the reader the exact sense, and assist him in the proper delivery.

The principal stops are the following :—

The Comma (,) the semicolon (;) the colon (:) the period, or full stop (.) the note of interrogation (?) the note of exclamation (!) the parenthesis () and the dash (—)

The comma represents the shortest pause; the semicolon a pause double that of the comma; the colon, double that of the semicolon; and the period, double that of the colon.

The duration of the pauses must be left to the taste of the reader or speaker.

By the term *adjunct* is meant, any number of words added by way of modifying or qualifying the principal words; thus, "*Cicero, the eloquent Cicero*, suffered an ignominious death;" the phrase, *the eloquent Cicero*, is the adjunct of *Cicero*.

RULES FOR THE PROPER PUNCTUATION OF A COMPOSITION.

OF THE COMMA.

The comma usually separates those parts of a sentence which, though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a pause between them.

RULE 1.—A simple sentence, when it is a short one, admits only a period at the end; as, "No state of life is exempt from trouble."

When a simple sentence is a long one, and the nominative case is accompanied by inseparable adjuncts, a comma must be inserted before the verb; as, "A steady and undivided attention to one object, is a sure mark of superior genius." "The necessity of an early acquaintance with history, has always been acknowledged."

RULE 2.—The simple members of a compound sentence are separated by commas; as, “When the graces of novelty are worn off, admiration is succeeded by indifference.” “Crafty men contemn studies, simple men admire them, and wise men use them.”

But when the members are closely connected, the comma is unnecessary; as, “Revelation tells us how we may attain happiness.”

RULE 3.—*Two* words of the same part of speech, whether nouns, adjectives, verbs, participles, or adverbs, do not admit a comma between them when connected by a conjunction; as, “The *earth and the moon* are planets.” “Time brings a *gentle and powerful* opiate to all misfortunes.” “The man of order *catches and arrests* the hours as they fly.” “By *encouraging and animating* him, he became clever.” “Success generally depends on acting *prudently and vigorously*.” “We must either live *virtuously or viciously*.”

But when the conjunction is not expressed, a comma is inserted between the words; as, “*Reason, passion* answer one great end.” “He is a *plain, honest* man.”

RULE 4.—*Three* or more nouns, adjectives, verbs, participles, or adverbs, with or without a conjunction, are separated by commas; as, “Poetry, music, and painting, are fine arts.” “David was a brave, wise, and prudent prince.” “The sight, the hearing, the feeling, the taste, and the smell, are the five natural senses.”

When words follow each other in pairs, there is a comma between each pair; as, “Anarchy *and* confusion, poverty *and* distress, desolation *and* ruin, are the consequences of civil war.”

RULE 5.—The words used in a direct address, the case absolute, a short expression in the manner of a quotation, and the infinitive mood absolute when it is not used as a nominative case, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas; as, “*My son*, hear the counsels of thy father.” “I remain, *Sir*, your obedient servant.” “*The time of youth being* precious, we should devote it to the purposes of improvement.” “Plutarch calls lying, *the vice of slaves*.” “*To enjoy* present pleasure, he sacrificed future ease and reputation.”

RULE 6.—A single name in apposition is not separated by a comma; as, “The apostle Peter;” “The emperor Antoninus.” But when such name is accompanied with an adjunct, the adjunct should have a comma before and after it; as, “Augustus, *the Roman emperor*, was a

patron of the fine arts." "Paul, *the apostle of the Gentiles*, was eminent for his zeal and knowledge."

RULE 7.—Simple members of sentences connected by comparatives, and phrases placed in opposition to, or in contrast with, each other, are separated by commas; thus, "*As* the hart panteth after the water brooks, *so* doth my soul after thee." "They are sometimes in union *with*, and sometimes in opposition *to*, the views of each other."

"Though deep, *yet* clear, *though* gentle, *yet* not dull,
Strong, without rage; without o'erflowing, full."

Sometimes when one word follows the last preposition, a comma must not be inserted before it; as, "He was much attached *to*, and concerned *for* John."

When the members of comparative sentences are short, the comma is omitted; as, "How much *better* is wisdom *than* gold."

RULE 8.—All adjuncts or explanatory phrases, either at the beginning, middle, or end of a simple sentence, are separated from it by commas; as, "*With gratitude*, I remember his goodness to me." "I remember, *with gratitude*, his goodness to me." "His talents, *formed for great enterprizes*, could not fail of rendering him conspicuous." "Vices, *like shadows, towards the evening of life*, grow great and monstrous." "I saw the captain, *as he is called*."

A comma must also be inserted between the two parts of a sentence, which have their natural order inverted; as, "To God, nothing is impossible;" that is, "Nothing is impossible to God."

RULE 9.—A comma must be inserted before the relative, when the clause immediately after it is used as explanatory of the antecedent clause; as, "He, *who* disregards the good opinion of the world, must be utterly abandoned;" or, "*He* must be utterly abandoned, *who* disregards the good opinion of the world."

But when the relative is so closely connected with its antecedent, that it cannot be transposed, a comma must not be inserted before it; as, "Self-denial is the *sacrifice which* virtue must make." "I have carefully perused the *book which* you lent me."

RULE 10.—When any tense of the verb *to be* is followed by a verb in the infinitive mood, which, by transposition, might be made the nominative case to it, the former is generally separated from the latter verb by a comma; as, "The best preservative of health is, to be temperate in all our gratifications." "To be temperate in all our gratifications, is the best preservative of health."

RULE 11.—When a verb is understood, a comma must be inserted ; as, “Reading makes a full man ; conference, a ready man ; and writing, an exact man.”

RULE 12.—The word *that* used as a conjunction is preceded by a comma ; as, “Be virtuous, *that* you may be happy.”

Adverbs, prepositions, or conjunctions, used to connect or introduce a new member, must be separated from the preceding part of the sentence by a comma ; as, “The instructions of adversity may be wholesome, *though* unpleasant.” “The wise man seeketh wisdom, *but* the fool despiseth understanding.”

RULE 13.—The words *now, so, hence, again, first, secondly, formerly, now, lastly, in fact, therefore, wherefore, however, besides, indeed*, and all other words and phrases of the same kind, must, when considered of importance, be separated from the context by a comma, according to rule 8th ; as, “*Besides*, our reputation does not depend on the caprice of man, but on our own good actions.” “*Lastly*, strive to preserve a conscience void of offence towards God and man.” “If the spring put forth no blossoms, in summer there will be no beauty, and in autumn, no fruit ; *so*, if youth be trifled away without improvement, riper years may be contemptible, and old age miserable.”

When, however, these phrases are not considered important, and particularly in short sentences, the comma is not inserted ; as, “There is *surely* a pleasure in acting kindly.” “Idleness *certainly* is the mother of all vices.” “He was *at last* convinced of his error.”

* * The foregoing rules will, it is hoped, be found comprehensive ; yet there may be some cases in which the student must rely on his own judgment.

In composing works for the press, many authors merely insert a period at the end of each sentence, and leave the rest to be pointed by the printers, who, from their constant practice, are supposed to have acquired a uniform mode of punctuation.

OF THE SEMICOLON.

The semicolon is used to separate the parts of a sentence, which are less closely connected than those which are separated by a comma.

RULE 1.—When the first division of a sentence contains a complete proposition, but is followed by a clause which is added as an inference, or to give some explanation, the two parts must be separated by a semicolon ; as, “Perform your duty faithfully ; for this will procure you the blessing of heaven.” “The orator makes

the truth plain to his hearers; he awakens them; he excites them to action; he shews them their impending danger." "Be in peace with many; nevertheless, have but one counsellor of a thousand."

RULE 2.—When several short sentences follow each other, having merely a slight connexion in idea, though in other respects complete in themselves, they may be separated by a semicolon; as, "Every thing grows old; every thing passes away; every thing disappears." "The epic poem recites the exploits of a hero; tragedy represents a disastrous event; comedy ridicules the vices and follies of mankind; pastoral poetry describes rural life; and elegy displays the tender emotions of the heart."

OF THE COLON.

The colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less connected than those which are separated by a semicolon, but not so independent as to require a period.

RULE 1.—A colon is used when a member of a sentence is complete in itself, both in sense and construction, but is followed by some additional remark or illustration, depending upon it in sense, though not in syntax; as, "A brute arrives at a point of perfection that he can never pass: in a few years he has all the endowments he is capable of, and were he to live ten thousand more, would be the same thing he is at present." "Study to acquire a habit of thinking: no study is more important."

RULE 2.—When a sentence contains several perfect members separated by semicolons, the concluding member requires a colon before it; as, "A divine legislator, uttering his voice from heaven; an Almighty Governor stretching forth his arm to punish or reward; informing us of perpetual rest prepared hereafter for the righteous, and of indignation and wrath awaiting the wicked: these are the considerations which overawe the world, which support integrity and check guilt."

RULE 3.—Either the colon or semicolon may be used when an example, a quotation, or a speech is introduced; as, "Always remember this ancient maxim; *'Know thyself.'*" "The scriptures give us an amiable representation of the Deity, in these words: *'God is love.'*"

RULE 4.—The insertion or omission of a conjunction before the concluding member of a sentence, frequently determines the use of the

colon or semicolon. When the conjunction is not expressed before the concluding member, the colon is to be used ; but when it is expressed, the semicolon is used ; as, "Apply yourself to learning : it will redound to your honour." "Apply yourself to learning ; for it will redound to your honour."

OF THE PERIOD.

When a sentence is complete, with respect to the construction and the sense intended, a period must be used ; as, "God made all things." "By disappointments and trials, the violence of our passions is tamed." "In the varieties of life, we are inured to habits both of the active and the passive virtues."

A period is sometimes inserted between sentences which are connected by conjunctions ; as, "Our position is, that happiness does not consist in greatness. *And* this position we make out by shewing, that even what are supposed to be the peculiar advantages of greatness, the pleasures of ambition and superiority, are in reality common to all conditions. *But* whether the pursuits of ambition are ever wise, whether they contribute more to the happiness or misery of the pursuers, is a different question ; and a question concerning which we may be allowed to entertain great doubt."

The period must be used after all abbreviations ; as, "A. D." "M. A." "Fol."

OTHER CHARACTERS USED IN COMPOSITION.

Interrogation (?) is used when a question is asked.

Admiration (!) or *Exclamation*, is used to express any sudden emotion of the mind.

Parenthesis () is used to enclose some necessary remark in the body of another sentence ; *commas* are now commonly used instead of Parenthesis.

Apostrophe (') is used in place of a letter left out ; as *lov'd* for *loved*.

Caret (^) is used to show that some word is either omitted or interlined.

Hyphen (-) is used at the *end* of a *line*, to show that the rest of the word is at the beginning of the next line. It also connects compound words ; as, *Tea-pot* ; *Father-in-law*.

Section (§) is used to divide a discourse or chapter into portions.

Paragraph (¶) is used to denote the beginning of a new subject.

Crotchets ([]) or *Brackets*, are used to enclose a word or sentence which is to be explained in a note, or the explanation itself, or to correct a mistake, or supply some deficiency.

Quotation (" ") is used to show that a passage is quoted in the author's words

Index (§ 87) is used to point out any thing remarkable.

Brace { is used to connect words which have one common term, or three lines in poetry, having the *same* rhyme, called a triplet.

Ellipsis (—) is used when some letters are omitted; as, K—g for King

Acute accent (´) is used to denote a *short* syllable; the *grave* (`) a *long*

Breve (˘) marks a *short* vowel or syllable, and the *Dash* (—) a *long*.

Diaeresis (¨) is used to divide a diphthong into two syllables; as, ærial.

Asterisk (*)—*Obelisk* (†)—*Double Dagger* (‡)—and *Parallels* (||) with *small* letters and figures, refer to some note on the *margin*, or at the bottom of the page.

(***) Two or three asterisks denote the omission of some letters in some bold or indelicate expression, or some defect in the manuscript.

Dash (—) is used to denote abruptness—a significant pause—an unexpected turn in the sentiment—or that the *first* clause is *common* to all the rest, as in *this* definition of a dash.

ABBREVIATIONS.

Latin.

English.

Ante Christum*	A. C.	Before Christ
Artium Baccalaureus	A. B.	Bachelor of Arts (often B. A.)
Anno Domini	A. D.	In the year of our Lord
Artium Magister	A. M.	Master of Arts
Anno Mundi	A. M.	In the year of the world
Ante Meridiem	A. M.	In the forenoon
Anno Urbis Conditiæ	A. U. C.	In the year after the building of the city
Baccalaureus Divinitatis	B. D.	Bachelor of Divinity [—Rome]
Custos Privati Sigilli	C. P. S.	Keeper of the Privy Seal
Custos Sigilli	C. S.	Keeper of the Seal
Doctor Divinitatis	D. D.	Doctor of Divinity
Exempli gratia	e. g.	For example
Regiæ Societatis Socius	R. S. S.	Fellow of the Royal Society
Regiæ Societatis Antiquarium Socius	R. S. A. S.	Fellow of the Royal Society of Antiquaries
Georgius Rex	G. R.	George the King
Id est	i. e.	That is
Jesus Homininum Salvator	J. H. S.	Jesus the Saviour of men
Legum Doctor	L. L. D.	Doctor of Laws
Locus Sigilli	L. S.	Place of the Seal
Messieurs (<i>French</i>)	Messrs.	Gentlemen
Medicinæ Doctor	M. D.	Doctor of Medicine
Memoriæ Sacrum	M. S.	Sacred to the Memory (or S. M.)
Nota Bene	N. B.	Note well: Take notice
Post Meridiem	P. M.	In the afternoon
Post Scriptum	P. S.	Postscript, something written after
Ultimo	Ult.	Last, (month)
Et Cætera	&c.	And the rest; and so forth

A. Answer.	A. C. J.	Lord Chief Justice
Acct. Account	Knt.	Knight
Bart. Baronet	K. G.	Knight of the Garter
Bp. Bishop	K. B.	Knight of the Bath
Capt. Captain	K. C. B.	Knt. Commander of the Bath
Col. Colonel	K. C.	Knt. of the Crescent
Cr. Creditor	K. P.	Knight of St. Patrick
Dr. Debtor, Doctor	K. T.	Knight of the Thistle
Do. or Ditto. The same	MS.	Manuscript

* The *Latin* of these Abbreviations is inserted, not to be got by heart, but to show the etymology of the English; or explain, for instance, how P. M. comes to mean afternoon, &c.

Viz.*	Namely	MSS.	Manuscripts
Q.	Question, Queen	N. S.	New Style
R. N.	Royal Navy	O. S.	Old Style
Esq.	Esquire	J. P.	Justice of the Peace

PARAGRAPHS.

Different subjects, unless they are very short, or very numerous, should be separated into paragraphs.

When one subject is continued to a considerable length, the larger divisions of it should be put into distinct paragraphs.

The facts, premises, and conclusions, of a subject, sometimes naturally point out the separations into paragraphs: and each of these, when of great length, will again require subdivisions at the most distinctive parts.

In cases which require a connected subject to be formed into several paragraphs, a suitable turn of expression, exhibiting the connexion of the broken parts, will give beauty and force to the division.

§ 89. OF CAPITALS.

Formerly every noun began with a capital letter, both in writing and in printing; but at present only the following words begin with capital letters:—

1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing.

2. The first word after a period; also after a note of interrogation, or exclamation, when the sentence before, and the one after it, are independent of each other.

But if several interrogative or exclamatory sentences are so connected, that the latter sentences depend on the former, all of them, except the first, may begin with a small letter; as, "How doth the city sit solitary, that was full of people! how are her habitations become as desolate! how is she become as a widow!"

3. Proper names, that is, names of persons, places, ships, &c.

4. The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are written in capitals.

5. The first word of every line in poetry.

6. The appellations of the Deity; as, God, Most High, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, &c.

* Contracted from *videlicet*.

7. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places ; as, Grecian, Roman, English, &c.

8. The first word of a quotation, introduced after a colon ; as, always remember this ancient maxim : “ *Know thyself.*”

When a quotation is not introduced in the direct form, but follows a comma, the first word must not begin with a capital ; as, Solomon observes, that ‘ pride goes before destruction.’

9. Common nouns when personified ; as, “ Come, gentle *Spring.*”

10. Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books ; as, “ Euclid’s Elements of Geometry ; ” “ Goldsmith’s Deserted Village.”

Note. Other words, besides the preceding, may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably emphatical, or the principal subject of the composition.

§ 90. RHETORICAL DIVISIONS OF A DISCOURSE.

The principal parts of a discourse are generally six in number, viz. the Exordium, the Narration, the Proposition, the Confirmation, the Refutation, and the Peroration.

The *Exordium*, or beginning of a discourse, is the part in which the writer or speaker gives some intimation of his subject, and solicits the favor and attention of his audience or readers.

The *Narration* is a brief recital of all the facts connected with the case, from beginning to end.

The *Proposition* is the part in which is given the true state of the question, specifying the points maintained, and those in which the writer or speaker differs from his adversary.

The *Confirmation* assembles all the proofs and arguments that can be adduced in support of what has been attempted to be established. The stronger begin and end this part, and the weaker are reserved for the middle.

The *Refutation* is the part in which the writer or speaker answers the arguments and objections of his opponent.

In the *Peroration* or Conclusion, he sums up the principal arguments, and endeavors to excite the passions of his reader or hearer in his favor.

§ 91. DIFFERENT KINDS OF COMPOSITION.

All Composition, whether spoken or written, is of two kinds, either Prose or Poetry.

Prose compositions are those in which the thoughts and sentiments are expressed in common and ordinary language.

Poetic compositions are those in which the thoughts and sentiments are expressed by such a selection and arrangement of words as pleases the ear and captivates the fancy.

Thousands write and speak in prose for one who does so in verse, yet it is generally allowed that poetic compositions in all countries have preceded those of prose.

Compositions, whether in prose or poetry, are divided into different classes, and arranged under various heads.

I. DIFFERENT KINDS OF PROSE COMPOSITION.

The different kinds into which prose compositions may be divided, are, Narrative, Letters, Memoirs, History, Biography, Essays, Philosophy, Sermons, Novels, and Speeches or Orations.

NARRATIVE is a plain and simple statement of such facts and occurrences as a person may have either seen or heard, and includes in it Voyages and Travels of all descriptions.

LETTERS are those easy and familiar compositions which pass from one person to another, and may be appropriated to every description of subject, though generally relating to the common and ordinary occurrences of life and business.

MEMOIRS consist of loose and familiar records of individuals or nations, without that regularity of method which history and biography require.

HISTORY is a regular account of the past transactions of some particular age or nation, and details chiefly plans of government, movements of armies, and events of great and general interest.

BIOGRAPHY is a particular species of history, and consists of an account of the birth, death, and most important occurrences in the life of some eminent individual.

ESSAY means trial or attempt, and is a modest term assumed at the pleasure of the writer, as the title of almost any species of composition, though it is generally employed to denote such writings as the Spectator, Rambler, &c.

PHILOSOPHY or **Philosophical Compositions** are those in which the principles of art and science are inculcated, and the various phenomena of the Natural and Moral world investigated.

SERMONS are illustrations of some doctrine of Scripture, or exhortations to the practice of some moral and religious duty, enjoined by Christianity.

NOVELS are those compositions which give an account of characters and events that have in reality never existed, but have been invented or supposed by the author for the purpose either of affording pleasure, or inculcating some important lesson.

SPEECHES AND ORATIONS are those addresses which are made either at the Bar or in Public Assemblies, for the purpose of persuading the hearers of the truth of certain opinions, or leading to the adoption of certain modes of action.

II. DIFFERENT KINDS OF POETRY

The different kinds, into which poetry may be divided, are, the Epigram, the Epitaph, the Sonnet, Pastoral, Didactic, Satiric, Descriptive, Elegiac, Lyric, Dramatic, and Epic or Heroic, poetry.

An **EPIGRAM** is a short, witty poem, the point or humour of which is brought out in the concluding lines.

An **EPITAPH** is an inscription on a tombstone, in commemoration of some departed person.

The **SONNET**, which is of Italian origin, means a little song, and consists generally of fourteen lines, constructed in a peculiar manner.

PASTORAL POETRY is that which relates to rural life; though it sometimes assumes the form of a simple song or ballad.

DIDACTIC POETRY is that by which some art or duty is inculcated; and, though forming a distinct class of itself, yet its characteristics are so general as to extend to almost every description of poetry.

SATIRES are poems intended to ridicule vices and follies, and hold them up to contempt. They have been divided into two classes; the jocose or ludicrous, and the serious or declamatory.

DESCRIPTIVE POETRY may be classed under two divisions; that, by which is offered to our view a delineation of nature, or of natura.

scenery, and that, by which are described the manners, sentiments, and passions of men.

ELEGY was first employed in lamentation for the decease of great persons, or of those who were particularly dear to the writer ; but it was afterwards extended in its application, and employed to express the misery of disappointed love, and even at times made the vehicle of moral sentiment.

LYRIC POETRY is such as may be sung or set to music, which both the term ode, and the epithet lyric, from lyre, a musical instrument, imply. There is the serious and sublime ode ; and the familiar and comic, which, in modern language, is denominated the song.

By **DRAMATIC POETRY** is generally meant a poem in blank verse, called a play, and fitted for representation on the stage. It is of two kinds, Tragic and Comic.

An **EPIC POEM** is a historical representation or description of some great and important action, involving the interests of the whole, or of a large portion, of mankind.

PART IV.

PROSODY.

PROSODY consists of two parts ; Elocution and Versification.

§ 92. ELOCUTION.

ELOCUTION is correct pronunciation, or the proper management of the voice in reading or speaking.

The utility of Elocution will be evident, when we consider that the finest composition and the most brilliant ideas may be materially injured, and, in some cases, totally destroyed, by a bad and insipid delivery ; while, on the other hand, noble sentiments, properly and gracefully delivered, produce an astonishing effect on the mind of the hearer.

In order to read and speak with grace and effect, attention must be paid to the proper pitch of the voice, the accent and quantity of the syllables, and to emphasis, pauses, and tones.

1. THE VOICE.

1. *The voice must be neither too loud nor too low.* An overstrained voice is inconvenient to the speaker, and disagreeable to the hearer ; while a voice that is too low, besides being inaudible, indicates either indolence or want of attention. Endeavour, therefore, so to preserve the command of your voice, not only in each sentence, but throughout the discourse, that you may elevate or lower it according to the number of persons that you address, and the nature of the place in which you speak.

2. *The voice must not be thick and indistinct.* Never mumble or clip your words, by omitting to pronounce some of the short words, and some syllables in the long words; for it is very disagreeable to hear an individual hurrying on without any care either to be heard distinctly, or to give his words their full and proper sound. Accustom yourself, both in conversation and in reading, to give every sound which you utter its due proportion, so that every word and every syllable may be clearly and distinctly heard. Observe with what deliberation some read and converse, how full a sound they give to every word; and let such persons be models for your imitation.

3. *The utterance must be neither too quick nor too slow.* When we speak too quick, the hearer finds a difficulty in keeping pace with our movements; whilst, by a slow and heavy delivery, he becomes languid and careless. Endeavour, therefore, to convey to the hearer the sense, weight, and propriety of every sentence you read, in a free, full, and deliberate pronunciation.

4. *The voice must not be irregular or uneven, nor yet dull nor uniform, but modulated according to the nature of the subject.* Do not begin your periods either in too high or in too low a key; for this may lead to its being unnaturally and improperly varied. Attend to the nature and quantity of your points, and the length of your periods; and keep your mind intent on the sense, subject, and spirit of the author.

2. ACCENT AND QUANTITY.

ACCENT is the laying of a particular stress of the voice on a certain syllable in a word; as, the syllable *vir* in the word *virtue*.

A proper accentuation is of importance, and it can be acquired only by attending to correct speakers, and frequently consulting a good Pronouncing Dictionary. Walker's Dictionary is considered the standard for pronunciation.

The QUANTITY of a syllable, is that time which is required to pronounce it.

A long syllable requires double the time of a short one in pronouncing it; thus, *pine*, *tube*

should be pronounced as slowly again as *pin* and *tub*.

3. By EMPHASIS is meant that stress of the voice which we lay on some particular word or words, in order to mark their superior importance in the sentence, and thereby the better to convey the idea intended by the writer or speaker.

A person who clearly comprehends what he says in private conversation, never fails to place the emphasis on the right word ; when, therefore, he is about to read or repeat the words of others or his own, let him only consider where he would lay the emphasis, supposing those words proceeded from the immediate sentiment of his own mind in private discourse.

There is one error, against which it is necessary particularly to caution the learner, namely, that of too great a multiplication of emphatical words. It is only by a judicious use of them that we can give them any weight. If they recur too often ; if a reader or speaker appears desirous, by a multitude of strong emphases, to render every thing which he expresses particularly important, we soon learn to pay little regard to them. To crowd every sentence with emphatical words, is like crowding all the pages of a book with *Italic* characters, which, as to the effect, is just the same as to use no such distinctions at all.

4. PAUSES, or rests, are cessations of the voice, in order to enable the reader or speaker to take breath ; and to give the hearer a distinct perception of the meaning, not only of each sentence, but of the whole discourse.

Pauses are of two kinds ; first, emphatical pauses ; and next, such as serve to distinguish the sense.

Emphatical pauses are used after something has been said which is of importance, and on which we wish to fix the hearer's attention. Sometimes they are made to introduce an emphatical sentence ; but then the matter must be really important, otherwise the expectation is disappointed. These pauses, like emphases, ought not to be used too frequently.

With respect to *pauses which serve to distinguish the sense*, it is proper to observe, that the voice should be relieved at every stop ; slightly at a comma, longer at a semicolon, still more so at a colon, and completely at a period. An excellent method for preventing the habit of taking breath too frequently, is, to accustom yourself to read sentences of considerable length, and those which abound with long and difficult words.

Pauses, whether in reading or in public discourse, must always be formed upon the manner in which we utter ourselves in ordinary, sensible conversation, and not upon any stiff, artificial manner which is sometimes acquired.

There are likewise two kinds of pauses peculiar to *poetry* ; one is, the final pause at the end of the line, and the other, the *cæsural* pause at or near the middle of the line.

In reading blank verse, the close of each line should be made sensible to the ear, but without letting the voice fall, or elevating it ; it should be marked only by such a slight suspension of sound, as may distinguish the passage from one line to another without injuring the sense.

The *cæsural* pause divides the line into two parts. It is necessary in every line of eight, ten, or twelve syllables, and is generally placed at the end of the fourth, fifth, or sixth syllable.

5. **TONES** consist in the modulation of the voice, the notes or variations of sound which we employ in speaking.

The different passions of the mind must be expressed by different tones of the voice. Love, by a soft, smooth, languishing voice ; anger, by a strong, vehement, and elevated voice ; joy, by a quick, sweet, and clear voice ; sorrow, by a low, flexible, interrupted voice ; fear, by a dejected, tremulous, hesitating voice ; courage, by a full, bold, and loud voice ; and perplexity, by a grave, steady, and earnest voice. In exordiums the voice should be low, yet clear ; in narrations, distinct ; in reasoning, slow ; in persuasions, strong : it should thunder in anger, soften in sorrow, tremble in fear, and melt in love.

In the *antithesis*, the contrary assertion must be pronounced louder than the other. In a *climax*, the voice should always rise with it. In *dialogues*, it should alter with the parts.

The voice should be steadily and firmly supported throughout the sentence, and the concluding words ought to be modulated according

to the general nature of the discourse, and the particular construction and meaning of the sentence. Such sentences are so constructed, that the last words require a stronger emphasis than any of the preceding; while others admit of being closed with a soft and gentle sound. Where there is nothing in the sense which requires the last sound to be elevated or emphatical, an easy fall, sufficient to show that the sense is finished, will be proper. And in pathetic pieces it is necessary that there should be a still greater cadence of the voice.

The tones of public speaking must be formed upon those of sensible animated conversation. The best rule, therefore, is to *follow Nature*; consider how she teaches you to utter any sentiment or feeling of the heart. Imagine a subject of debate introduced into conversation, and yourself bearing a share in it. Think after what manner, with what tones and inflections of voice, you would on such an occasion express yourself, when you were most in earnest, and sought most to be listened to by those whom you addressed. Let these be the foundation of your manner of pronouncing in public, and you will take the surest method of rendering your delivery both agreeable and persuasive.

The next subject which claims attention is *GESTURE OR ACTION*. The best rule that can be given with respect to this subject is, to attend to the looks and gestures in which earnestness, indignation, compassion, or any other emotion, discovers itself to most advantage in the common intercourse of men. A judicious speaker will endeavor to make his motions and gestures exhibit that kind of expression which nature has dictated, for unless this be the case, no study can prevent their appearing stiff and ungraceful. The study of action consists chiefly in guarding against awkward and disagreeable motions, and learning to perform, in the most graceful manner, such as are natural.

The first object in the study of Elocution is to habituate the scholar to speak with distinctness and deliberation; for till this has been acquired, no improvement can be made in elegance of expression. "An excellent method of teaching a distinct enunciation in speaking is," says Dr. Knox, "the motion of an instructor's hand, resembling the beating of time in music, and directing the pauses of the learner, and the slower or quicker progress of his pronunciation. It is, likewise, very useful to insist, during this exercise, that every syllable, but especially the last, shall strike the ear distinctly, but without dwelling upon it; otherwise the slow and distinct manner will degenerate into the

heavy and the sluggish. During this process, all monotony, and all disagreeable tones are to be carefully corrected."

When a distinct and deliberate utterance has been obtained, and all disagreeable tones have been corrected, the student must endeavor to acquire an impressive and graceful utterance, with such a portion of action as good sense and observation may suggest.

§ 93. VERSIFICATION.

VERSIFICATION is the arrangement of a certain number of syllables, according to particular rules.

A *Foot* is a part of a verse, and consists of two or three syllables.

A certain number of syllables are said to be named *Feet*, because by their aid the voice steps along, as it were, through the verse in a measured pace.

A *Verse* is a certain number of connected feet forming one line.

A *Hemistich* is half a verse.

A *Couplet* or *Distich* consists of two verses; a *Triplet* of three.

The term *hypercatalectic*, *hypermeter*, or *redundant*, is applied to a verse when it exceeds the regular number of syllables.

A *Stanza* or *Stave* is a combination of several verses, varying in number according to the poet's fancy, and constituting a regular division of a poem, or song.

Rhyme is a similarity of sound between the last syllables of different lines, as in the following verses:—

On what foundation stands the warrior's *pride*,
How just his hopes, let Swedish Charles *decide*.

In *Blank Verse* the final syllables do not rhyme.

A *Cæsura* is a cessation of the voice, and occurs immediately after the fourth, fifth, or sixth syllable of a verse; as,

The dumb shall sing || the lame his crutch forego,
And leap exulting || like the bounding roe.

Metre is the arrangement of a certain number of poetical feet in a verse, according to the accent.

To *scan* a verse is to divide it into its component feet.

Alliteration consists in repeating the same letter or letters, at certain intervals; as,

Better to *hunt* in fields for *health* unbought,
Than fee the *doctor* for a nauseous *draught*.

The *Strophe* was that part of the ancient hymn which was sung by the Greek chorus, in turning from east to west, while dancing round their altars.

The *Antistrophe* was that part of the sacred hymn of the Greeks which was sung in returning from west to east, after they had danced round the altars.

The *Epode* is the third or last part of an ode; the ancient ode was divided into strophe, antistrophe, and epode. The epode was sung by the priest standing before the altar, after all the turns and returns of the strophe and antistrophe. The word epode signifies the end of the song.

The *Prologue*, in dramatic poetry, is an explanatory exordium, addressed to the audience before the drama begins.

The *Epilogue*, in the drama, is an address to the audience when the play is completed, and is generally written in poetry.

All feet used in poetry are reducible to eight kinds; four of two syllables, and four of three, as follows:—

DISSYLLABLE.

A Trochee — ∪
An Iambus ∪ —
A Spondee — —
A Pyrrhic ∪ ∪

TRISYLLABLE.

A Dactyl — ∪ ∪
An Amphibrach ∪ — ∪
An Anapæst ∪ ∪ —
A Tribrach ∪ ∪ ∪

A *Trochee* has the first syllable accented,* and the last unaccented; as, “Nōblē, hāppy.”

An *Iambus* has the first syllable unaccented, and the last accented; as, “Adōre, dēfēnd.”

A *Spondee* has both the words or syllables accented, as, “Vāin mān.”

* In versification, every accented syllable is long, every unaccented syllable is short.

A *Pyrrhic* has both the words or syllables unaccented ; as, “E’én ĩn | the height.”

A *Dactyl* has the first syllable accented, and the two latter unaccented ; as, “Vĩrtũous.”

An *Amphibrach* has the first and last syllables unaccented, and the middle one accented ; as, “Cõntẽment.”

An *Anapæst* has the first two syllables unaccented, and the last accented ; as, “ĩntěrcẽde.”

A *Tribrach* has all its syllables unaccented ; as, “Numěráblě.”

The Iambus, Trochee, and Anapæst, may be denominated *principal* feet, as pieces of poetry are chiefly, and may be wholly, formed of them. The others may be termed *secondary* feet, because their chief use is to diversify the numbers, and to improve the verse.

1. IAMBIC VERSES.

Iambic verses have every second, fourth, and other even syllables accented, and are of various lengths.

1. The shortest form of Iambic verse, consists of one Iambus with an hypermeter or additional syllable ; as,

Cõnsẽnt | ĩng,

Rěpẽnt | ĩng.

We have no poem of this measure, but it is sometimes introduced into stanzas.

2. The second form of our Iambic is also too short to be continued through any number of lines. It consists of two Iambuses ; as,

Wĩth Thẽe | wẽ rise.

Wĩth Thẽc | wẽ reĩgn

And ěm | pĩres gāĩn,

Běyõnd | thẽ skĩes.

This form sometimes assumes an hypermeter syllable ; as

Upõn | ă mōun | tăĩn

Běside | ă fõun | taĩn.

3. The third form consists of *three* Iambuses, and is continued only for a few lines ; as,

In plā | cẽs fār | õr neār,

Or fā | mōus õr | õbscũre,

Whěre whōle | sōme is | thě air,
Or whěre | thě mōst | ĩmpūre.

This form sometimes admits an additional short syllable ; as

Oůr heārts | nō lōng | ěr lān | guĩsh.

4. The fourth form may extend through a considerable number of verses ; it consists of *four* Iambuses ; as,

Hōw sleēp | thě brāve | whō sīnk | tō rēst
By āll thěir cōuntry's wīshēs blēst !
When spring, with dewy fingers cold,
Returns to deck their hallow'd mould,
But there shall dress a sweeter sod,
Than fancy's feet have ever trod.

5. The fifth species, or *Heroic* measure, consists of *five* Iambuses ; as,

Yě glit | t'rīng tōwns, | wīth wēalth | ānd splēnd | oůr
crōwn'd ;
Ye fields, where summer spreads profusion round ;
Ye lakes, whose vessels catch the busy gale ;
Ye bending swains, that dress the flow'ry vale ;
For me your tributary stores combine ;
Creation's heir, the world, the world is mine !

This measure may be used either with, or without rhyme, and frequently admits an additional syllable ; as,

Wōrth mākes | thě mān, | thě wānt | ōf it | thě fēl | *low*,
The rest is nought but leather or prunello.

6. The sixth form of our Iambic is commonly called the *Alexandrine* measure ; it consists of *six* Iambuses.

Fōrthōu | ārtbūt | ōfdūst ; | bēhūm | blēānd | bēwīse.

The Alexandrine is sometimes introduced into heroic rhyme, and particularly into stanzas after the manner of Spencer ; and when used sparingly, and with judgment, occasions an agreeable variety.

To sit on rocks, to muse o'er flood and fell,
To slowly trace the forest's shady scene,

Where things that own not man's dominion dwell,
 And mortal foot hath ne'er, or rarely been ;
 To climb the trackless mountain all unseen,
 With the wild flock that never needs a fold ;
 Alone o'er steeps and foaming falls to lean ;
 This is not solitude ; 'tis but to hold

*Converse | with Na | ture's charms, | and view | her stores | un-
 roll'd.*

7. The seventh and last form of Iambic verse consists of *seven* Iambuses.

The Lord | descend | ed from | above, | and bow'd | the heav | ens
 high.

This was anciently written in one line ; but it is now broken into two ,
 the first containing four feet, and the second three ; as,

Thou didst, | O migh | ty God ! | exist |
 Ere time | began | its race ; |
 Before the ample elements
 Fill'd up the void of space.

2. TROCHAIC VERSE.

1. The shortest Trochaic verse consists of *one* Trochee, with an additional syllable ; as,

Tūmūlt | cease,
 Sīnk tō | peace.

2. The next form contains *two* Trochees ; as,

Wishēs | rīsīng,
 Thoughts sur | prising,
 Pleasures | courting,
 Charms trans | porting.

Sometimes this form admits an additional syllable ; as,

In thē | dāys ōf | ōld,
 Stōrīes | plāinly | told,

3. The third species contains *three* Trochees ; as,

Whēn oūr | hēarts āre | mōurnīng.

This form frequently has an additional syllable ; as,

Vītāl | spārk ōf | hēav'nly | *flame*,
 Quit, oh | quit, this | mortal | *frame* !

Trembling, hoping, ling'ring, flying,
 Oh! the pain, the bliss of dying :
 Cease fond nature, cease thy strife,
 And let me languish into life.

4. The fourth form consists of *four* Trochees ; as,

Rōund ūs | roārs thē | tēmpēst | lōudēr. |

This form seldom assumes an additional syllable.

5. The fifth species is not very common ; it is composed of *five* Trochees ; as,

All thāt | wālk ōn | foōt ōr | rīde īn | chāriōts,
 All that dwell in palaces or garrets.

6. The sixth and last form consists of *six* Trochees ; as,
 On ā | mōuntaīn, | strētch'd bē | nēath ā | hōary | wil-
 lōw, |
 Lay a shepherd swain, and viewed the rolling billow.

3. DACTYLIC VERSE.

Dactylic verse is very rarely used.

3. ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

1. The first form of our Anapæstic verse consists of *two* Anapæsts ;
 as,

Būt hīs cōu | rāge 'gān fāil,
 For no arts could avail.

Sometimes this form assumes an additional short syllable ; as,

Thēn hīs cōu | rāge, gān fāil | hīm,
 For no arts could avail him.

2. The second species, much used both in solemn and cheerful subjects, consists of *three* Anapæsts.

O yē wōods, | sprēad yōur brānch | ēs āpāce ;
 To your deep | est recess | es I fly ;
 I would hide with the beasts of the chase,
 I would vanish from every eye.

3. The third consists of *four* Anapæsts; as,

Māy Igō | vērn my pāss | iðns wīth āb | sōlūte swāy ;
And grow wiser and better as life wears away.

This form sometimes contains an additional syllable; as,

On thē wārm | chečk ōf yōuth, | smīles ānd rō | sēs
āre blēnd | īng.

The preceding are the different kinds of the *principal* feet, in their simple forms. They are capable of numerous variations, by the intermixture of those feet with one another, and by the admission of the secondary feet, as will be seen by the following examples.

THE PYRRHIC MIXED WITH THE IAMBIC.

And tō | thē deād | my will | īng sōul | shālł gō.

THE SPONDEE WITH THE IAMBIC.

Fōrbēar | grēat mān, | īn ārms | rēnōwn'd, | fōrbēar.

THE TROCHEE WITH THE IAMBIC.

Tyrānt | ānd slāve, | thōse nāmes | ōf hāte | ānd fēar

THE FOLLOWING CONSISTS OF AN IAMBIC AND TWO ANAPÆSTS.

My sōr | rōws I thēn | mīght āssuāge
In thē wāys | ōf rēli | gion ānd trūth,
Might learn | from the wis | dom of age,
And be cheer'd | by the sal | lies of youth.

5. OF BLANK VERSE.

Our blank verse may be reckoned a noble, bold, and disencumbered species of versification, and in several cases it possesses many advantages over rhyme. It allows the lines to run into one another with perfect freedom; hence it is adapted to subjects of dignity and force, which demand more free and manly numbers than can be obtained in rhyme. Blank verse is written in the heroic measure, consisting of ten syllables. The principal poets in this species of composition are Milton, Thomson, Armstrong, Akenside, Cowper, and Pollok.

§ 94. FIGURES OF SPEECH.

A **FIGURE OF SPEECH** is a mode of speaking, in which a word or sentence is to be understood in a sense different from its most common and literal meaning.

THE PRINCIPAL FIGURES OF SPEECH ARE,

Personification,
Simile,
Metaphor,
Allegory,
Hyperbole,
Irony,
Metonymy,

Synecdoche,
Antithesis,
Climax,
Exclamation,
Interrogation,
Paralepsis,
Apostrophe.

Prosopopæia, or *Personification*, is that figure of speech by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects; as, *The sea saw it and fled*.

A *simile* expresses the resemblance that one object bears to another; as, *He shall be like a tree planted by the rivers of water*.

A *Metaphor* is a simile without the sign (like, or as, &c.) of comparison; as, *He shall be a tree planted by, &c.*

An *allegory* is a continuation of several metaphors, so connected in sense as to form a kind of parable or fable; thus, The people of Israel are represented under the image of a vine; *Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt, &c.* Ps. lxxx. 8 to 17.

An *hyperbole* is a figure that represents things as greater or less, better or worse, than they really are; as, When David says of Saul and Jonathan, *They were swifter than eagles, they were stronger than lions*.

Irony is a figure by which we mean quite the contrary of what we say: as, When Elijah said to the worshippers of Baal, *Cry aloud, for he is a god, &c.*

A *metonymy* is a figure by which we put the cause for the effect, or the effect for the cause; as, when we say, *He reads Milton*; we mean Milton's works. *Grey hairs* should be respected, *i. e.* old age.

Synecdoche is the putting of a part for the whole, or the whole for a part, a definite number for an indefinite, &c. as, *The waves* for the sea, the *head* for the person, and *ten thousand* for any great number. This figure is nearly allied to *metonymy*.

Antithesis, or *contrast*, is a figure by which different or contrary objects are contrasted, to make them show one another to advantage; thus, Solomon contrasts the timidity of the wicked with the courage of the righteous, when he says, *The wicked flee when no man pursueth, but the righteous are bold as a lion.*

* *Climax* is the heightening of all the circumstances of an object or action, which we wish to place in a strong light; as, *who shall separate us from the love of Christ? Shall tribulation, or distress, or persecution, or famine, or nakedness, or peril, or sword? Nay, &c.* See also, Rom. viii. 38, 39.

Exclamation is a figure that is used to express some strong emotion of the mind; as, *Oh the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and the knowledge of God!*

Interrogation is a figure by which we express the emotion of our mind, and enliven our discourse by proposing questions; thus, *Hath the Lord said it? and shall he not do it? Hath he spoken it? and shall he not make it good?*

Paralepsis, or *omission*, is a figure by which the speaker pretends to conceal what he is really declaring and strongly enforcing; as, Horatius was once a very promising young gentleman, but in process of time he became so addicted to gaming, *not to mention his drunkenness and debauchery*, that he soon exhausted his estate and ruined his constitution.

Apostrophe, is a turning off from the subject to address some other person or thing; as, *Death is swallowed up in victory: O death, where is thy sting?*

§ 95. POETIC LICENSE.

I. The first species of poetic license consists in an arrangement of words different from what is allowable in prose.

1. The adjective is often placed after its noun, where in common prose it would precede it; as,

Come, nymph *demure*, with mantle *blue*.
Or where the gorgeous east, with richest hand,
Showers on her kings *barbaric*, pearls and gold.

2. The nominative sometimes follows, and the objective precedes, their respective verbs; as,

* Climax, Amplification, Enumeration or Gradation.

No *hive* hast thou of hoarded sweets.
 A transient *calm* the happy scenes *bestow*.
 His listless *length* at noontide would he *stretch*.
 Snatched in short eddies, *plays* the withered *leaf*.

3. The infinitive mood often precedes the word on which it depends ;
 as,

When first thy sire *to send* on earth
 Virtue, his darling child, *designed*,
 To thee he gave the heavenly birth,
 And bade thee form her infant mind.

4. The verb comes frequently between its nominatives ; as

Then too, they say, through all the burdened air,
 Long groans *are heard*, shrill sounds, and distant sighs.
 His praise, ye brooks, *attune*, ye trembling rills.

5. Prepositions are sometimes placed after the words which they govern ; as,

Where echo walks steep hills *among*.

- II. In poetry, words, idioms, and phrases, are often used which would be inadmissible in prose ; as,

A man he was to all the country dear,
 And *passing* rich with forty pounds a year.
 By fountain clear, or spangled star-light *sheen*.
 Shall I receive by gift, what of my own,
 When and where *likes me* best, I can command ?
 Thy voice we hear, and thy *behests* obey.
 The *whiles*, the vaulted shrine around,
 Seraphic wires were heard to sound.
 On the first friendly bank he *throws him* down.
 I'll seek the solitude he sought,
 And *stretch me* where he lay.
 Not Hector's *self* should want an equal foe.

- III. More violent and peculiar ellipses are allowable in poetry than in prose ; as,

Suffice, to-night, these orders to obey.

Time is our tedious song should here have ending.

For is there ought in sleep *can* charm the wise ?

'Tis fancy in her fiery car,

Transports me to the thickest war.

Who never fasts, no banquet e'er enjoys.

Bliss is the same in subject as a king,

In *who* obtain defence, or who defend.

IV. A syllable in poetry is often either omitted or added as best suits the measure ; as,

Wail, for bewail ; wilder, for bewilder ; plaint, for complaint ; amaze, for amazement ; eve or even, for evening ; helm, for helmet ; morn, for morning ; lone, for lonely ; dread, for dreadful ; list, for listen ; ope, for open ; lure, for allure ; e'er, for ever ; ne'er, for never, &c.

The language of poetry may be said to be a dialect appropriated almost solely to this species of composition. Not only the nature of the thoughts and sentiments, but the very selection and arrangement of the words, gives English poetry a character, which separates it widely from common prose.

V. Adjectives in poetry are often elegantly connected with nouns which they do not strictly qualify ; as,

The *ploughman* homeward plods his *weary* way.

The *tenants* of the *warbling* shade.

And *drowsy* tinklings lull the distant *folds*.

VI. The rules of grammar are often violated by the poets. See Crombie Rule 14.

1. A noun and its pronoun are often used in reference to the same verb ; as,

It ceased, the melancholy *sound*.

My *banks* *they* are furnished with bees.

2. The imperfect tense and the perfect participle are often substituted for each other, especially in rhyme ; as,

Though parting from that mother he did *shun*,

Before his weary pilgrimage *begun*.

3. An adverb is often admitted between the verb and *to*, the sign of the infinitive; as,

To sit on rocks, to muse o'er flood and fell;
To *slowly* trace the forest's shady scenes.

VII. A common poetic license consists in employing *or* and *nor* instead of *either* and *neither*; as,

————— And first
Or on the listed plain, or stormy sea.
Nor grief nor fear shall break my rest.

VIII. Intrans. verbs are often made trans. and adjectives used like abstract nouns; as,

The lightnings *flash* a larger curve.
Still in harmonious intercourse, they *lived*
The rural day, and *talked* the flowing heart.
Meanwhile, whate'er of *beautiful* or *new*,
By chance or search, was offered to his view,
He scanned with curious eye.

IX. Greek, Latin, and other foreign idioms, are allowable in poetry though inadmissible in prose; as,

He *knew* to sing, and *build* the lofty rhyme.
Give me to seize rich Nestor's shield of gold.
There are, who deaf to mad ambition's call
Would shrink to hear the obstreperous trump of fame.
Yet *to* their general's voice they all obeyed.
————— Never *since created man*
Met such imbodyed force.

X. Contractions are often made in poetry, which are not allowable in prose; and letters and syllables which are silent in prose are often sounded in poetry; as,

And *ne'er* again the boy his bosom sought.

They *praised* are alone, and starve right merrily.

Such are a few of the licenses allowed to poets, but denied to prose writers; and, among other purposes which they obviously serve, they enhance the pleasure of reading poetic composition, by increasing the

boundary of separation set up, especially in our language, between it and common prose. Were such licenses not permitted in poetry, the difficulty attendant upon this species of composition would probably be so great, that hardly any person would attempt the arduous task of writing verse.

§ 96. HINTS FOR CORRECT AND ELEGANT WRITING.

Correct and elegant writing depends partly upon the choice of words, and partly upon the form and structure of sentences.

I. In so far as respects single words, the chief things to be observed, are Purity, Propriety, and Precision.

PURITY.

Purity consists in the rejection of such words and phrases as are not strictly English, nor in accordance with the practice of good writers and speakers.

1. Avoid foreign words and modes of expression; as, *Fraicheur*; politesse; he repents him of his folly.

2. Avoid obsolete and unauthorized words; as, *Albeit*, *aforetime*, *inspectator*, *judgmatical*.

EXERCISES.

The person is without encumberment. In the country, we associate with none but the bettermost sort of people. Snails exclude their horns, and therewith explore their way. Methinks till now I never heard a sound more dreary. We walked adown the river side. Peradventure he may call to-morrow. He is a very unpopular speaker. I like his great candidness of temper.

PROPRIETY.

Propriety consists in the use of such words as are best adapted to express our meaning.

1. Avoid low and provincial expressions; as, to get into a scrape.

2. In writing prose, reject words that are merely poetical; as, this morn; the celestial orbs.

3. Avoid technical terms, unless you write to those who perfectly understand them.

4. Do not use the same word too frequently, or in different senses; as, the king communicated his intention to the minister, *who* disclosed it to the secretary, *who* made it known to the public; His own *reason* might have suggested better *reasons*.

5. Supply words that are wanting, and necessary to complete the sense; thus, instead of this action increased his former services; say, this action increased the *merit* of his former services.

6. Avoid equivocal or ambiguous expressions; as, his *memory* shall be lost on the earth.

7. Avoid unintelligible and inconsistent expressions; as, I have an *opaque* idea of what you mean.

EXERCISES.

The composure of this psalm is attributed to David. They will meet at eve. Regard should be paid to the pupils' intended *avoca-*

tions. The observation of the Sabbath is incumbent upon every Christian. The negligence of this leaves us exposed to uncommon levity. He put an end to his own existence. I propose to give a general view of the subject. I wonder if he will come. He feels none of the sorrows that usually arrive at man. War should be so managed as to remember that its only end is peace. When Johnson was ill, he composed a prayer to deprecate God's mercy. There are both more and more important truths. He lives in a lone cottage. The Latin tongue in its purity was never in this island. Imprudent associations disqualify us for the instruction or reproof of others.

PRECISION.

Precision rejects superfluous words.

1. Avoid tautology; as, his *faithfulness* and *fidelity* were unequalled.

2. Observe the exact meaning of words accounted synonymous; thus, instead of, though his actions and intentions were good, he lost his *character*; say, he lost his *reputation*.

EXERCISES.

I took some wine and some water, and mixed them both together. He wandered throughout the whole city. They abhorred and detested being in debt. This man on all occasions, treated those around him with great haughtiness and disdain. His wealth and riches being collected and accumulated in meanness, were squandered in riot and extravagance. Such conduct showed a marked and obvious intention to deceive and abuse us. He had proceeded but a short way on his journey, when he returned home again.

II. With respect to Sentences, Clearness, Unity, Strength, and a proper application of the Figures of Speech, are necessary.

CLEARNESS.

Clearness demands a proper arrangement of words.

1. Adverbs, relative pronouns, and explanatory phrases, must be placed as near as possible to the words which they affect, and in such a situation as the sense requires.

2. In prose, a poetic collocation must be avoided.

3. Pronouns must be so used as clearly to indicate the word for which they stand.

EXERCISES.

By the articles subsisting between us, on the day marriage, you agreed to pay down the sum of eight thousand pounds. Not to exasperate him, I only spoke a very few words. It has not a word, says Pope, but what the author religiously thinks in it. It is true what he says, but it is not applicable to the point. Had he died before, would not then this art have been wholly unknown. Most nations, not even excepting the Jews, were prone to idolatry. He will soon weary the company, who is himself wearied.

UNITY.

Unity retains one predominant object through a sentence, or a series of clauses

1. Separate into distinct sentences, such clauses as have no immediate connexion.

2. The principal words must, throughout a sentence, be the most prominent, and the leading nominative should, if possible, be the subject of every clause.

3. Avoid the introduction of parenthesis, except when a lively remark may be thrown in, without too long suspending the sense of what goes before.

EXERCISES.

Desires or pleasure usher in temptation, and the growth of disorderly passions is forwarded. The notions of Lord Sunderland were always good, but he was a man of great expense. A short time after this injury, he came to himself; and the next day they put him on board a ship, which conveyed him first to Corinth, and thence to the island of Ægina. He who performs every employment in its due place and season, suffers no part of time to escape without profit; and thus his days become multiplied; and much of life is enjoyed in little space. Never delay till to-morrow, (for to-morrow is not yours; and though you should live to enjoy it, you must not overload it with a burden not its own,) what reason and conscience tell you ought to be performed to-day.

STRENGTH.

Strength gives to every word and every member its due importance.

1. Avoid tautology, and reject all superfluous words and members. In the following sentence, the word printed in *Italics* should be omitted; *being* conscious of his own integrity, he disdained submission.

2. Place the most important words in the situation in which they will make the strongest impression.

3. A weaker assertion should not follow a stronger; and, when the sentence consists of two members, the longer should be the concluding one.

4. When two things are compared or contrasted with each other, where either resemblance or opposition is to be expressed, some resemblance in the language and construction should be preserved.

5. A sentence should not be concluded with a preposition, or any inconsiderable word or phrase, unless it be emphatic.

EXERCISES.

It is six months ago, since I paid a visit to my relations. Suspend your censure so long, till your judgment be wisely formed. The reason why he spoke as he did, he never explained. If I mistake not, I think he has made great improvement since I last saw him. Those two gentlemen appear both to be foreigners. I fear this is the last time that we shall ever meet. How many are there, by whom these tidings of good news were never heard. This measure may afford some profit, and furnish some amusement. Thought and language act and re-act mutually upon each other. Sinful pleasures blast the opening prospects of human felicity, and degrade human

honor. Generosity is a splendid virtue, which many persons are very fond of! As no one is without his failings, so few want good qualities.

FIGURES OF SPEECH.

1. Figurative language must be used sparingly, and never except when it serves to illustrate or enforce what is said.
2. Figures of speech, when used, should be such as appear natural, not remote or foreign from the subject, and not pursued too far.
3. Literal and figurative language ought never to be blended together.
4. When figurative language is used, the same figure should be preserved throughout, and different figures never jumbled together.

EXERCISES.

No human happiness is so serene as not to contain some alloy. I intend to make use of these words in the thread of my speculations. Hope, the balm of life, darts a ray of light through the thickest gloom. Let us keep our mouths with a bridle, and steer our vessel so as to avoid the rocks and shoals which meet us at every step. We are all embarked on a troubled sea, and every step of our journey brings us into new perils. Let us keep alive the flame of devotion in the soul, and not suffer our minds to sink into utter indifference about spiritual matters.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

When favors of every kind are conferred speedily, they are doubled. I wish to cultivate your acquaintance. In no situation did he ever, at any time, make so poor an appearance. Many things occur which are known only to the eye of him, to whom all things lie open and exposed. There can be no manner of doubt but that his services will be rewarded. John's temper quite disqualified him for instruction. The business, in which he was then engaged, engrossed the whole of his time and attention. He disposed of his house, together with all his furniture, at a very trifling sum. He was a boy of but twelve years old, when I saw him at his father's. No employment but a bookseller would satisfy him. This matter I had a great mind to reply to. He must pay attention both to what goes before, and immediately follows after. To-day we are here; to-morrow we are gone. I went home full of a great many serious reflections. Shall they treat as visionary, objects which they never have made themselves acquainted with. I perceived that it had been scoured with half an eye.

§ 97. COMPOSITION.

To be able to compose with ease and accuracy is one of the first of human attainments. It is the fruit of careful study and long practice, requiring an intimate acquaintance with language, a knowledge of its grammatical structure, as well as an intimacy with the works of the most distinguished authors, who have made it the vehicle for communicating their thoughts.

As a preparatory step to the important business of composition, the pupil, after he has acquired a knowledge of grammar, may be exercised with great advantage upon the transposition of words and members in sentences, so as to try in how many different ways the same thought or sentiment may be expressed. This will give him a considerable command of language, and prove, at the same time, a source of considerable mental cultivation. It is often necessary to give an entirely new turn to an expression, before a sentence can be rendered elegant or even perspicuous.

There are chiefly four ways in which the mode of expressing a thought may be varied.

1. By changing an active into a passive, or a passive into an active verb; as, The sun *dissolves* the snow; The snow *is dissolved* by the sun.

2. By inversions or transpositions, which consist in changing the order in which the words stand in the sentence; as, Competence may be acquired by industry; By industry competence may be acquired.

3. By changing an affirmative into a negative, or a negative into an affirmative, of an entirely contrary character; as, Virtue promotes happiness; Virtue does not promote misery.

4. By either a partial or an entire change of the words employed to express any sentiment; as, Diligence and application are the best means of improvement; Nothing promotes improvement like diligence and application.

EXERCISES ON TRANSPOSITION.

The Roman state evidently declined, in proportion to the increase of luxury. I am willing to remit all that is past, provided it can be done with safety. A good man has respect to the feelings of others in all that he says or does. Bravely to contend for a good cause is noble; silently to suffer for it is heroic. Provided he be himself in comfortable circumstances, the selfish man has no concern about the circumstances of others. The man who can make light of the sufferings of others, is himself entitled to no compassion. Sloth is one of man's deadliest enemies. He who made light spring from primeval darkness, will, at last, make order rise from the seeming confusion of the world.

EXAMPLE OF TRANSPOSITION.

The Roman state evidently declined, in proportion to the increase of luxury. In proportion to the increase of luxury, the Roman state evidently declined. The Roman state, in proportion to the increase of luxury, evidently declined.

EXERCISES ON VARIETY OF EXPRESSION.

His conduct was less praise-worthy than his sister's. It is better to be moved by false glory, than not to be moved at all. I shall attend the meeting, if I can do it with convenience. He who improves in modesty, as he improves in knowledge, has an undoubted claim to greatness of mind. The spirit of true religion breathes gentleness and affability. There is no such obstacle to the attainment of ex-

cellence, as the power of producing, with facility, what is tolerably good. Industry is not only the instrument of improvement, but the foundation of pleasure. A wolf let into the sheep-fold, will devour the sheep.

EXAMPLE OF VARIETY OF EXPRESSION.

His conduct was less praise-worthy than his sister's. His sister's conduct was more praise-worthy than his. His sister's mode of acting was entitled to more praise than his. His conduct was less entitled to praise than that of his sister, &c.

Another exercise, not destitute of utility as a foundation for composition, consists in giving the pupil, especially if very young, a list of words with directions to form from them such sentences as shall contain these words.

EXERCISES.

Construct a number of such sentences as shall each contain one or more of the following words:—Contentment, behavior, consideration, elevation, distance, application, respect, duty, intercourse, evidence, social, bereavement, nonsensical, absurdity, elucidate, consternation, temperance, luxury, disarm, expatiate, &c.

LETTERS.

One of the simplest and yet most useful species of composition, is letter-writing. This species of composition may be practised either by way of real correspondence between those pursuing the same studies, or it may consist of letters written to imaginary correspondents. The following are a few topics adapted to composition of this latter kind:

Letter 1st.—Write to a friend at a distance. State to him the object of your writing. Tell him what studies you are pursuing, and how you like them. Mention how yourself and friends are. Give an account of some of the alterations which have been lately made, or are now making in your neighborhood; and conclude by expressing your desire either to see him or hear from him soon.

Letter 2d.—Write to a companion an account of a long walk which you lately had. Tell him whether you were alone or in company. Mention what particular things struck you by the way; and enumerate all the incidents that occurred of any moment.

Letter 3d.—Write to a friend who is supposed to have sent you a present of books, and thank him for such kindness. Tell him the use you intend to make of them; and inform him to what particular books you are most partial. Conclude by giving some account of those you have been lately reading, and how you like them.

Letter 4th.—Write to a friend supposed to be going abroad. Describe to him how you would feel if called to leave your friends and your native country. Express your regret at losing him; but state your hope that you will not forget each other when seas roll between

you. Request him to write to you frequently ; and advise him to be careful about his health, and of the society he keeps.

Letter 5th.—Write to a friend at a distance ; and give him an account of a sail which you lately had in a steam-boat. Mention what places you visited ; and state the objects that most delighted you. Tell him how long you were away, what sort of weather you had, and what were your feelings upon returning home.

Letter 6th.—Write to a friend an account of the church you were at last Sabbath. Tell who preached ; mention the psalms or hymns that were sung ; and the portions of Scripture that were read. State the texts from which the minister preached ; and give your opinion of the different sermons.

These have been given as mere specimens of the subjects upon which the student who has acquired a knowledge of grammar may be required to write. The prudent and skilful teacher will be enabled to multiply and vary them at pleasure and to any extent.

Another method of exercising the minds of pupils in composition, consists in reading some simple story or narrative, till such time as they are acquainted with the facts, and then directing them to express these in their own words. A still further and perhaps even a simpler method, is, to take advantage of a young person's having given some account of what he has either seen, heard, or read, and desire him to commit to writing what he has stated orally.

THEMES.

The next step in composition is the writing of regular themes. The subject, however, should always be such as is not above the capacity of the person who is desired to compose, or, if it is, the whole benefit resulting from the exercise will be nullified.

A theme is a regular set subject upon which a person is required to write ; or the dissertation that has been written upon such a subject. Some of the simplest subjects for themes are those drawn from natural history, or natural philosophy. At all events they should not, in the first instance, be drawn from subjects of an abstruse and abstract character.

The following may serve as specimens in this department :—

Theme 1st.—The horse.—1. Describe what sort of animal the horse is. 2. Tell some of the different kinds. 3. Mention the various ways in which this noble animal is serviceable to man. 4. State what would be the consequence of wanting him. 5. Mention the treatment to which he is entitled, and the cruelty of ill-using such a creature.

Write themes upon the cow, the dog, the sheep, and upon poultry ; and follow the same plan as that which you followed in writing upon the horse.

Theme 2d.—The sun.—1. Begin by stating what the sun is. 2. Tell all you know of its size, figure, and distance from our earth. 3. Mention the effect it has upon the earth, and the benefits we derive

from it. 4. State what would be the consequence if the sun were extinguished; and what our feelings ought to be toward the Supreme Being for such an object.

Write themes upon the moon, the stars, fire, air, and water; and in all follow the same plan.

Theme 3d.—Day and night.—1. Tell what you mean by day and night. 2. State whether they are always alike long; and what is the advantage arising from their lengths being different at different seasons. 3. Mention the different purposes for which they are adapted. 4. Say of what the continued succession of day and night is fitted to remind us, and how this should lead us to act.

Write themes upon the different seasons, and upon mountains, rivers, and the tides of the sea; and follow a similar plan in the whole.

Theme 4th.—On Composition.—1. Explain what you mean by this term. 2. Point out the necessity of studying this art, by showing how much it contributes to add to the value of one's knowledge. 3. Mention what is necessary to fit one for composing well. 4. State the means by which skill in this art is to be obtained.

Theme 5th.—On Company.—1. Explain what you mean by company. 2. Show how natural it is for man to seek society. 3. State the danger of keeping either too much company, or of keeping bad company. 4. Point out the advantages of good company.

Write themes upon Conversation, Study, Improvement of Time, Choice of Books, Memory, the different Organs of Sense, &c.; and in all follow the same method as you did in writing on Company.

Theme 6th.—Narratives.—Describe the place or scene of the actions related—the persons concerned in—the time—posture of affairs—state of mind, motives, ends &c. of the actors—results.

Write themes upon The discovery of America. The French War. The Revolutionary War. The Battle of Bunker's Hill. The French Revolution.

Theme 7th.—Dissertations on remarkable events in sacred or profane history,—The place—the origin—the circumstances—results—moral influence, &c.

Following this or a similar arrangement of parts, write a composition on The Creation—Death of Abel—The Deluge—The World after the Flood—The Tower of Babel—The Israelites in Egypt—Their deliverance from it—The giving of the law from Sinai—The Advent of the Messiah—his death—resurrection—Destruction of Jerusalem, &c.—The Scize of Troy—Rise and Fall of the Roman Empire—The Crusades—The burning of Moscow—The battle of Waterloo—The death of Bonaparte, &c.

Theme 8th.—Give an account of some of the most distinguished characters in different ages of the World—Warriors, Statesmen, Artists, Philosophers, Poets, Orators, Divines, Philanthropists;—mentioning what is known respecting their country, parentage, education, character, principles, exploits, influence on society, for good or evil death.

The following list of themes is selected from Parker's Exercises in Composition.

- | | | |
|---|------------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. On Attention, | 26. On Fortune, | 51. On Ocean, |
| 2. " Adversity, | 27. " Fear, | 52. " Pride, |
| 3. " Ardor of mind, | 28. " Forgiveness, | 53. " Party Spirit, |
| 4. " Art, | 29. " Government, | 54. " Poverty, |
| 5. " Attachment, local, | 30. " Grammar, | 55. " Principle, |
| 6. " Anger, | 31. " Greatness, true, | 56. " Perseverance, |
| 7. " Air, | 32. " Genius, | 57. " Patriotism, |
| 8. " Benevolence, | 33. " Habit, | 58. " Politeness, |
| 9. " Beauty, | 34. " Honour. | 59. " Providence, |
| 10. " Biography, | 35. " Happiness, | 60. " Punctuality, |
| 11. " Bad Scholar, | 36. " Humility, | 61. " Poetry, |
| 12. " Charity, | 37. " Hypocrisy, | 62. " Piety, |
| 13. " Clemency, | 38. " History, | 63. " Religion, |
| 14. " Compassion, | 39. " Hope, | 64. " Reading, |
| 15. " Conscience, | 40. " Indolence, | 65. " Sincerity, |
| 16. " Constancy, | 41. " Industry, | 66. " Summer, |
| 17. " Carelessness, | 42. " Ingratitude, | 67. " Spring, |
| 18. " Curiosity, | 43. " Justice, | 68. " Sun, |
| 19. " Cheerfulness, | 44. " Learning, | 69. " System, |
| 20. " Contentment, | 45. " Love of Fame, | 70. " Truth, |
| 21. " Diligence, | 46. " Music, | 71. " Time, |
| 22. " Duplicity, | 47. " Moon, | 72. " Talent, |
| 23. " Early Rising, | 48. " Novelty, | 73. " Vanity, |
| 24. " Envy, | 49. " Night, | 74. " Virtue, |
| 25. " Friendship, | 50. " Order, | 75. " Wealth, |
| 76. Knowledge is Power, | 91. Public Opinion, | |
| 77. Progress of Error, | 92. Diligence ensures Success, | |
| 78. Progress of Truth, | 93. Idleness destroys Character, | |
| 79. Government of the Tongue, | 94. Contrivance proves Design, | |
| 80. Government of the Temper, | 95. Avoid Extremes, | |
| 81. Government of the Affections, | 96. Visit to an Almshouse, | |
| 82. Local Attachments, | 97. Pleasures of Memory, | |
| 83. The Power of Association, | 98. Example better than Precept, | |
| 84. The Immortality of the Soul, | 99. Misery is wed to Guilt, | |
| 85. The Uses of Knowledge, | 100. Value of Time, | |
| 86. Power of Conscience, | 101. Virtue, the way to Happiness, | |
| 87. The Power of Habit, | 102. No one lives for Himself, | |
| 88. Life is Short, | 103. Thou God seest me, | |
| 89. Miseries of Idleness, | 104. Trust not Appearances, | |
| 90. Never too old to learn, | 105. Whatever is, is Right, | |
| 106. "An honest man's the noblest work of God." | | |
| 107. Every man the architect of his own fortune. | | |
| 108. Man, "Mysterious link in being's endless chain." | | |
| 109. "A little learning is a dangerous thing." | | |
| 110. How blessings brighten, as they take their flight. | | |
| 111. Advantages derived from the invention of the mariner's compass
—of the telescope—the steam engine—the art of printing—of gunpowder. | | |
| 112. History of a needle—a cent—a Bible—a beaver hat. | | |
| 113. Description of a voyage to England—coast of Africa—Constantinople—South America—East Indies—China. | | |

APPENDIX.

I. GRAMMAR.

THE object of Grammar, in a general sense, is to investigate the principles of language, and from a careful analysis of these, to lay down a system of rules and principles, by observing which, we may be enabled to express our thoughts in a particular language in a correct and proper manner. Such a collection of rules and principles applicable to the English language, with directions for their use in the most simple, brief, and convenient manner, has been attempted in the preceding pages.

When we speak of Grammar as a system of rules, it is not to be understood that the rules are first established, and the language afterwards modelled in conformity to these. The very reverse is the fact; language is antecedent to grammar. "No grammarian can of his own authority alter the phraseology of any expression, or assign to a word a signification different from that which has been allotted to it by established usage. He must take the language as it is, not as he would wish it to be. He may, indeed, recommend this or that mode of expression, as more agreeable to analogy, but it must remain with the public whether or not his advice be adopted. From the decision of general, reputable, and established usage, there lies no appeal. His business is to observe the agreement or disagreement of words, the similarity or dissimilarity between different forms of expression; to reduce those that are similar, under the same class, and by a careful induction of particulars, establish general propositions. Nor is it absolutely necessary that he should know by what means this or that phraseology came into use, or why this or that word forms an exception to a general rule; it is sufficient for his purpose if he does know that it is an exception, and knowing it, points it out to others."

"By arranging the various rules and principles of a language into a systematic form, permanency is given to what would otherwise be subject to fluctuation or involved in obscurity; the relative connexion and importance of the rules, become clearly ascertained, and the whole is rendered more easy of being acquired and retained, and applied with facility and correctness."

"Prior to the publication of Lowth's excellent little grammar, the grammatical study of our own language, formed no part of the ordinary method of instruction, and consequently the writings of the best authors were frequently inaccurate. Subsequent to that period, however, attention has been paid to this important sub

ject, and the change that has taken place both in our written and oral language, has evidenced the decided advantages resulting from such a plan.

“The Grammar which has attained the greatest celebrity for general use, is that by Mr. Murray. In this work, he has embodied the principles and rules which were deduced by the most celebrated grammarians that preceded him, and by arranging the whole in a better order, has rendered it decidedly superior to every work of the kind which existed before its appearance.”—*Hiley's Preface.*

Since that time, many works have been published of various degrees of merit, most of which have had for their object, not so much to investigate more thoroughly the principles of language, as to simplify and elucidate principles already investigated. The *Etymology and Syntax* of Dr. Crombie, lately published, though not intended for the use of schools, is a most valuable addition to the stock of original works on this subject. “The industry of research, and acuteness of discrimination, which he has evinced in the collection and comparison of different forms of speech, have thrown great light upon many difficulties, and his conclusions must in general serve as land marks to the future traveller.” Some works of an eccentric character have also at times appeared, whose authors, smitten with a passion for novelty or singularity, have manifested much more capacity for pulling down, than building up,—for finding fault with that which is good already, than for producing something better in its place. Still the labors of even these, are not without their use. Like the violence of the tempest which shakes the sturdy oak, and causes it to strike its roots deeper and firmer in the parent soil, they only more firmly establish that which cannot be overthrown.

The principles of language, which grammar as a science investigates, are general and permanent. They belong to all languages, and remain the same however they may be classed, or in whatever terms they may be expressed. Hence it is, that the grammars of all languages are substantially the same, and differ only in minor details, as idiom and usage require. This is as it should be. No good reason can be given for making a grammar of the English language, for example, *toto calo*, different from the grammars of other languages, ancient or modern. And yet it has been, and still is, the practice of some to declaim against the existing systems of English Grammar, because, as they say, they are conformed to the grammars of the dead languages, or to those of foreign nations. Though such efforts may prevail for a season and with a few, more mature reflection usually dissipates the delusion. It is well known that novices in every science, are constantly making discoveries, and these appear to them for a time so important and wonderful, that they sometimes think they cannot fail to astonish the world, revolutionize the science, and immortalize themselves. It happens too, that such discoveries are usually in proportion to the want of discrimination and intelligence of those

who make them. A more extended acquaintance with facts and principles, will often prove, even to themselves, that their great discoveries are only the crude and exploded fancies of other men and other days, long since abandoned as untenable and worthless. Discoveries of such a character are sometimes made in grammar also, and such, too, is often their origin and their end.

The system of English grammar as we now have it in the best works, or in what some are pleased to call the "Old grammars," rests on a more solid foundation. Men of sound, discriminating, and philosophical minds—men prepared for the work by long study, patient investigation, and extensive acquirements, have labored for ages to improve and perfect it, and nothing is hazarded in asserting, that should it be unwisely abandoned, it will be long before another equal in beauty, stability and usefulness, be produced in its stead.

II. CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

LANGUAGE, written or spoken, consists of words. In combining these into propositions and sentences, so as to express our ideas in a correct and intelligent manner, an accurate knowledge of their forms, changes and functions, is necessary,—and this again can be attained only by a proper classification of them according to their distinguishing characteristics and uses in the communication of thought. The importance of this has always been felt by grammarians, and various classifications have been made, differing from each other according to the principles assumed as their basis. The essentials of speech were anciently supposed to be sufficiently designated by the *Noun* and the *Verb*, to which was subsequently added, the *Conjunction*. In modern times, the parts of speech have been denominated *Substantives*, *Attributives*, *Definitives*, and *Connectives*. Such a classification, however, is too general to be of much use in grammar. To group together under one head, words specifically different in their character and use, can tend only to confusion; and to multiply divisions which can serve no practical purpose, is an extreme equally unprofitable.

By a careful analysis of language, we find that some words are employed to express the *names* of things, others to indicate their *qualities*; some express *action* or *state* under various modifications, others are used in connection with these to point out *circumstances* of time, place, manner, order, degree, &c.; some are employed to denote certain *relations* of things to each other, and others again, chiefly to *connect* the different parts of a sentence together. This diversity in the use of words, is as real, and as distinctly marked as the functions of the bones, muscles, arteries, and nerves of the human system, and forms a basis of classification equally proper in all languages.

On this principle of classification, the later Greek grammarians divided words into eight classes or parts of speech, viz: the *Arti-*

cle, Noun, Pronoun, Verb, Participle, Adverb, Preposition, and Conjunction. The Romans had no Article, but retained the same number by distinguishing between Adverbs and Interjections. Both included under the term Noun, the names of things, and words expressive of their qualities; the former they called *Substantive Nouns*,—the latter *Adjective Nouns*. These were subsequently ranked as two distinct classes, commonly called *Nouns* or *Substantives*, and *Adjectives*; and the participle was restored to the verb, to which it properly belongs. This classification, with little variation, has been adopted by the best English grammarians, and remains in general use even at this day; and though not absolutely perfect or incapable of improvement, still it is sufficient for all practical purposes, and is perhaps, on the whole, the best that has yet been proposed. Objections to it merely on the ground that it agrees with the generally received classification of ancient, or foreign languages, are just about as reasonable as objections to the anatomical classifications of ancient or foreign nations would be, merely because they happen to differ in stature, complexion, or features, from ourselves. Such objections have been, and still continue to be made, the futility of which needs no better illustration than the fact, that after all, their authors have offered little else in its stead, than the same or nearly the same divisions under different names.

III. REMARKS ON DIFFERENT CLASSES OF WORDS.

1. THE ARTICLE.

THE ARTICLE may properly be regarded as an adjective word, i. e. it is always employed in connexion with a noun or with words and phrases used as such. In Greek, and also in other languages, it is declined like the adjective, and comes under the same rules of concord with it. The Articles in English are *A* or *An*, and *The*. Of these, the first is used to individualize without restricting. It is therefore appropriately termed *Indefinite*, and is never used but with the singular number.

This word is evidently a derivative of the Saxon numeral *Ane*, (one,) shortened by the absence of emphasis into *An*; or it may be regarded as the same word used in a particular way. For the sake of euphony, the *n* is dropped before a consonant, and because most words begin with a consonant, this of course is its more common form. In the French, German, and other languages, which have the indefinite Article, its form is the same with their numeral *one*, and in reading or speaking, is distinguished from it by emphasis only. Still, in these languages it is not regarded as a numeral, its office being specifically different. The office of the numeral is to designate *number only*—one as opposed to two or more. But though from its nature, this article is joined only with the

singular, yet *number* is not the idea it is used to convey, but simply to indicate an individual indefinitely. An example will illustrate this. If I say, "Will *one* man be able to carry this burden so far?" I evidently oppose one to more, and the answer might be "No; but *two* men will." But if I say "Will *a* man be able to carry this burden?" it is manifest the idea is entirely changed, the reference is not to number, but to the species, and the answer might be "No; but a horse will." Translate these two sentences into Latin or Greek, or any language which does not use the indefinite article, and the first will necessarily have the numeral, the second will as necessarily want it. In this respect, the English has manifestly a decided advantage over those languages in which the same term is used both as an article and a numeral; and hence it appears to me that to class this article as a numeral, as some have proposed, would not only be in some measure to relinquish this advantage, but, by combining under one head, words whose use is so widely different, would prove an injury instead of an improvement.

The Article *The*, on the other hand, is used to restrict, and is therefore termed *Definite*. Its proper office is to call the attention to a particular individual or class, or to any number of such, and is used with nouns in either the singular or plural number. This word seems to be derived from the Saxon *Se*, (that,) plural *Tha*, and is distinguished from the demonstratives *this*, and *that*, much in the same way that *a* is distinguished from the numeral *one*. The Greeks had a separate word for this purpose, which the early grammarians called the *prepositive* Article, from its position *before* its noun; and to distinguish it from the relative pronoun which they called the *postpositive* Article, usually placed after it. These two words, in many sentences, were used relatively to each other, and like a joint, (*Articulus*), from which the name is derived, served to unite the two members of the sentence to which they respectively belonged, into one whole. This designation, originally given to this word from one of its prevailing uses, continued to be applied to it not only after the postpositive Article was more appropriately called the Relative pronoun, but also in cases in which no conjunction of the parts of a sentence was effected; and modern grammarians have extended it to the word known as the *Indefinite* Article. Whether a more appropriate designation for these words should now be devised, or whether they might be classed under some other head, are questions of no practical moment. The words exist in the language, they have a specific office to perform, they have peculiarities of construction which belong to no other class of words, they are only two in number, and are easily distinguished from other parts of speech, and if these considerations should not be considered sufficient to entitle them strictly and philosophically to a separate denomination, they are such at any rate as to render it convenient and useful; and if so, it seems unwise for the sake of a trivial advantage, even if that

could be gained, to disturb the settled language of grammar on this point, and so to destroy its present similarity to that of most other languages, in which this division and nomenclature are received.

In many sentences, *The* and *That*, are nearly equivalent, and the sense will be the same by using either, as “*The* man, or *that* man who hath no music in his soul,” &c. This, however, does not always hold; “*The* difference,” says Crombie, “seems to be

1st. *The* Article *the*, like *a*, must have a substantive joined with it, whereas *that*, like *one*, may have it understood; thus, speaking of books, I may select one, and say, ‘give me *that*,’ but not, ‘give me *the*,’ ‘give me *one*,’ but not ‘give me *a*.’ Here the analogy holds between *a* and *one*; *the* and *that*.

2d. “In general, the distinction between *the* and *that*, seems to be that the latter marks the object more emphatically than the former, being indirectly opposed to *this*. I cannot, for example, say ‘that man with that long beard,’ without implying a contrast with this man with this long beard; the word *that* being always emphatical and discriminative.”

2. THE NOUN OR SUBSTANTIVE.

THE characteristic of this class of words, is that they are *names*. Every word that is the name of any thing that exists, whether material or immaterial, or of any thing that is, or can be made the subject of thought or discourse, is a noun. Hence it follows, that letters, marks, or characters, and words used independently of their meaning and merely as things spoken of, are nouns; thus *A* is a vowel; *honor* is sometimes spelled with a *u*, and sometimes without it; *th* has two sounds; *us* is a pronoun; I will have no *ifs* or *buts*; *+* is the sign of addition. Hence also the infinitive mood, a participle, a member of a sentence, or a proposition, forming together the subject of discourse, or the object of a verb or preposition, and being the name of an act or circumstance, are in construction, regarded as nouns, and are usually called “substantive phrases;” as “*To play* is pleasant,” “*His being an expert dancer* is no recommendation,” “Let your motto be ‘*Honesty is the best policy*.’”

THE ACCIDENTS of the noun, in English, are in general, the same as in other languages, i. e. they have *Person*, *Gender*, *Number*, and *Case*; though in the details of these, there is some diversity in different languages, and even in different grammars of the same language.

1st. PERSON.—The person of nouns is not determined by any difference of form, as in pronouns, but simply by their relation to the discourse. In direct discourse, * a noun used by a speaker or

* Discourse is said to be *direct*, when a writer or speaker delivers his own sentiments; as, “I am the man.” *Oblique*, when he relates in his his own language, the sayings of another; as, “He says that he is the man.” See Lat. Gr. §141, Rule VI.

writer to designate himself, is said to be of the *first* person—used to designate the person addressed, it is said to be of the *second* person, and when used to designate a person or thing spoken of, it is said to be of the *third* person. It is obvious then from the nature of the case, that those words only can be of the first or second person, which denote intelligent beings, or which by personification are regarded as such, for no other can either speak or be properly spoken to, and they are usually in apposition with the first or second personal pronouns, as “I, Artaxerxes make a decree,” “I, thy father-in-law Jethro, am come unto thee,” “Thou, God seest me.”

A noun in the predicate, however, denoting either the speaker, or the person spoken to, is generally regarded as in the third person; thus, “I am he that liveth and was dead,” “I am Alpha and Omega—who is, and who was, and who is to come.” For this construction, and the variation of meaning which a change of person commonly indicates see §59, R. II, *Obs.* This rule, however, does not hold universally. In the following sentence, “Verily thou art a God that hidest thyself,” the word “God,” in the predicate, is evidently regarded as of the second person. So also in the phrases “It is I,” “It is thou,” &c. In oblique discourse, the third person only can be used.

2d. GENDER.—In all languages, the distinction of nouns with regard to sex, has been noted. Every substantive denotes either a male or female, or that which is neither the one nor the other. This accident, or characteristic of nouns, is called their *Gender*. In English, all words denoting male animals, are considered as *masculine*; all those denoting female animals, *feminine*; and those denoting things neither male nor female, are termed *neuter*. “In this distribution,” says Crombie, “we follow the order of nature, and our language is in this respect, both simple and animated.” Both in Latin and Greek, many words denoting things without sex, are ranked as masculine or feminine, without any regard to their meaning, but simply on account of their terminations. In French, all nouns are regarded as either masculine or feminine, which is a still greater departure from the order and simplicity of nature, for which the English Language on this point is distinguished.

Some have objected to the designation of three genders; they think that as there are but two sexes, it would be more philosophical and accurate, to say there are only two genders, and to regard all words not belonging to these, as without gender. A little reflection, I think, will show that this objection has no just foundation, either in philosophy or in fact, and that the change it proposes would be no improvement. It has probably arisen from confounding the word *gender*, which properly signifies a *kind*, *class*, or *species*, (Lat. *genus*, French *genre*,) with the word *sex*, and considering them as synonymous. This, however, is not the case; these words do not mean precisely the same thing, and they cannot be properly applied in the same way. We never say, “the

masculine sex, the feminine sex;" nor "the male gender, the female gender." In strict propriety of speech, the word *sex* can be predicated only of animated being; the word *gender*, only of the term by which that being is expressed. The *being*, man, has *sex*, not *gender*; the *word*, man, has *gender*, not *sex*. Though therefore it is very absurd to speak of three sexes, yet it may be very proper to speak of three genders; that is to say, there are three classes (genders,) of nouns, distinguished from each other by their relation to sex. One denotes objects of the male sex, and is called *masculine*; another denotes objects of the female sex, and is called *feminine*; and the third denotes objects neither male nor female, for which a name more appropriate than the term *neuter*, need not be desired.

The term "*Common gender*," applied to such words as *parent*, *child*, *friend*, &c. does not constitute a distinct class of words, which are neither masculine, nor feminine, nor neuter, but is used for convenience, merely to indicate that such words sometimes denote a male and sometimes a female. Instead of "*common*," those who prefer it, may call such words "*masculine or feminine*."

3d. CASE.—In the ancient languages, and also in the modern languages of Europe, nouns in each number, have certain changes of termination called Cases, which serve to shew the relation existing between them and other words in the sentence. Of these, the Latin has six, the Greek, five, the German, four, the Saxon, six, the French, three, &c. In English, the only variation of the noun in each number, is that used to mark possession, and for this reason, commonly called the possessive case. The nominative and objective do not differ in form, but only in their use, the former being used to denote the subject of a verb, and the latter to denote the object of a verb or preposition. The propriety of this distinction is manifest, from the fact, that in personal and relative pronouns, the objective case is distinguished from the nominative by a change of form.

3. ADJECTIVE.

Words of this class are supposed to have been originally nouns, the names of qualities or attributes, and from being joined to nouns whose quality or property they were employed to express, were called *adjective nouns*. In a more advanced state of language with few exceptions they cease to be used as nouns, and are employed to denote a quality, property or attribute, not separately, but in conjunction with its subject, Thus; when we say "*a stone*" we have the generic name of a certain substance and no more; but when we say, "*a round stone*," "*a hard stone*," "*a smooth stone*," we have the generic name, limited and described by the attributes of roundness, hardness, smoothness; and these as inherent in or belonging to the substance stone. The adjective always *implies* the name of a quality or attribute, but does not present that idea alone to the mind, as when we speak

of roundness, hardness, &c. but that idea *in concreto*,—in conjunction with its subject. Hence it follows that a word which does not *add* to its noun the idea of some quality or attribute as belonging to it or connected with it, is not strictly speaking an adjective, and for this reason the articles, and the words generally ranked as distributive, demonstrative, and indefinite pronouns, though adjectives in construction, are not so in sense and meaning. They express no quality, property or attribute of a noun, either separately or in connection with it, nor can they be predicated of it. On the other hand all words which do make such an addition to the noun, may properly be regarded as adjectives, though they be often or generally used for other purposes. Thus the words “gold,” “sea,” “flower,” are nouns, but when we say “a gold watch,” “sea water,” “a flower garden,” they are used as adjectives.

COMPARISON.—Adjectives denoting qualities or properties capable of increase, and so of existing in different degrees, assume different forms to express a greater or less degree of such quality or property in one object compared with another, or with several others. These forms are three, and are appropriately denominated the *positive*, *comparative*, and *superlative*. Some object to the positive being called a degree of comparison, because in its ordinary use it does not, like the comparative and superlative forms, necessarily involve comparison. And they think it more philosophical to say, that the degrees of comparison are only two, the comparative and superlative. This, however, with the appearance of greater exactness is little else than a change of words, and a change perhaps not for the better. If we define a degree of comparison ‘a form of the adjective which necessarily implies comparison,’ this change would be just, but this is not what grammarians mean, when they say there are three degrees of comparison. Their meaning is that there are three forms of the adjective, each of which, when comparison is intended, expresses a different degree of the quality or attribute in the things compared: Thus, if we compare wood, stone, and iron, with regard to their weight, we would say “wood is *heavy*, stone *heavier*, and iron is the *heaviest*.” Each of these forms of the adjective in this comparison expresses a different degree of weight in the things compared, the positive *heavy* expresses one degree, the comparative *heavier*, another, and the superlative *heaviest*, a third, and of these the first is as essential an element in the comparison as the second, or the third. Indeed there never can be comparison without the statement of at least two degrees, and of these the positive form of the adjective either expressed or implied, always expresses one. When we say “wisdom is more precious than rubies,” two degrees of value are compared, the one expressed by the comparative, “more precious,” the other necessarily implied. The meaning is “rubies are *precious*, wisdom is *more precious*.” Though, therefore, it is true, that the simple

form of the adjective does not always, nor even commonly denote comparison, yet as it always does indicate one of the degrees compared whenever comparison exists, it seems proper to rank it with the other forms, as a degree of comparison. This involves no impropriety, it produces no confusion, it leads to no error, it has a positive foundation in the nature of comparison, and it furnishes an appropriate and convenient appellation for this form of the adjective, by which to distinguish it in speech from the other forms.

4. PRONOUNS.

The term pronoun (Lat *pronomēn*) strictly means a word used for, or instead of a noun. In English, Pronouns are usually divided into three general classes, *personal*, *relative*, and *adjective*. The first or *personal*, includes also compound pronouns which in the nominative are emphatic or *definite*, and in the objective, reflexive, § 15. 2. The second or *relative*, (except "*that*") without any change of form becomes *interrogative* in asking questions, § 17. All the words in these two classes both in sense and construction are used as nouns, and instead of nouns.

The third class called adjective pronouns, and sometimes pronominal adjectives, is usually subdivided into *possessive*, *distributive*, *demonstrative*, and *indefinite*. Of these the first or possessive are derived from the personal, and in meaning are strictly pronouns, being always the representative or substitute of a noun; but in construction they are adjectives and are always joined with a noun, and hence are appropriately denominated adjective pronouns, i. e. pronouns used adjectively. By some they are less appropriately classed with adjectives; and called pronominal adjectives.

In many grammars the possessives *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are set down as the possessive case of the personal pronouns, with *mine*, *thine*, *his*, *hers*, *its*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, making two forms of the possessive case, thus; *my* or *mine*, *thy* or *thine*, &c. In the use of these forms this difference is to be observed, viz: that the first is always followed by a noun denoting the thing possessed; as, "this is *my* book;" the latter never has the noun following it, but seems as it were to include it, as well as to be governed by it; as, "this book is not *mine*;"—equivalent to "this book is not *my* book." The possessive case of the noun is used both ways; as, "this is *John's* book," or, "this book is *John's*." Which of these methods is adopted in teaching or studying grammar, is a matter of no practical moment; some grammarians adopt the one and some the other, merely as a matter of taste without any controversy on the subject. The classification in the text is preferred as being on the whole more simple,—because the possessives *my*, *thy*, &c. like the adjective, can never stand alone, as the possessive case does, but must be supported by a noun following them; Thus we say, "It is the

king's," "It is yours;" but we cannot say "It is your," the presence of a noun being necessary to the last expression;—and because if these words are ranked as the possessive case of the personal pronoun, it unnecessarily leaves the English language without a class of words, corresponding to the possessive pronouns of other languages. They have precisely the same meaning as the Latin *Meus, mea, meum*; or the French *Mon, ma*, or the German *Mein*, (or *meiner*) *meine, mein*; or the Anglo-Saxon, (which is the mother of the English language,) *Min, mine, min*,—and they are used in precisely the same way. There seems therefore, to be no good reason for giving them a different classification. Indeed, the only circumstance which renders it possible to regard them as a possessive case in English, is that like the English adjective they are indeclinable. Had they been declinable, like the Latin or French, &c. they never could have been used as a possessive case. The theory which would class the possessive mine, thine, hers, yours, &c. as the nominative or objective, because we can say for example, "Mine is better than yours," seems unworthy of a moment's notice.

The words belonging to the other three divisions, have been found more difficult to arrange in a satisfactory manner. They seem to occupy a sort of middle ground between adjectives and pronouns, and are sometimes used as the one, and sometimes as the other, without the strict and appropriate character of either. They are not adjectives in sense as already shewn. App. III. 2, but they are generally adjectives in construction, having a noun expressed or understood, which they serve to limit or restrict in various ways. On the other hand, with few exceptions, they are so often used without a noun, or as its substitute, that they are not improperly regarded as pronouns, though in a sense less strict than the others. Thus, "Let *each* esteem *others* better than themselves." "Among men, *some* are good, *others* bad, *none* perfect." "*All* things come alike to *all*," &c.

From this equivocal or rather double character of these words, they have been variously arranged by different authors. Some, among whom are Grant, Crombie, Hiley, Sutcliffe, Allen, Cooper, Brown, &c. class them with adjectives, and call them "*Pronominal Adjectives*;" and others, such as Lowth, Priestly, Smart, Murray, Lennie, Booth, Churchill, Wright, Cobbet, Kirkham, Smith, and many others, class them with pronouns, and call them "*Adjective Pronouns*." Since all are agreed about the use of these words, it seems in itself a matter of less importance to which of these two classes they be attached, or whether they are more appropriately called *Pronominal Adjectives* or *Adjective Pronouns*. But as in the Latin and Greek and in most, if not all European languages, almost all of the corresponding words are ranked uniformly as adjective pronouns; and as there is no necessity for, and no advantage to be derived from a different classification, it seems to be unwise, merely for the sake of change

or the love of singularity, to depart from this arrangement in English.

5. THE VERB.

1. DEFINITION.—The proper definition of this part of speech, its division into classes, and the distribution, arrangement, and nomenclature of its different parts, grammarians have found to be a task of no small difficulty, and their endeavors to execute it have not always proved satisfactory either to themselves or others. Of the many definitions and classifications that have been proposed, none are entirely free from objections; and the same variety that occurs on this subject in English grammars, is found also in the grammars of foreign languages. As a definition, I have met with nothing more brief and accurate than that given in the text.

2. MURRAY'S DIVISION.—The classification of verbs has been and still is a vexed question. In accordance with his definition, Murray has divided verbs into three classes, *Active*, *Passive*, and *Neuter*, and includes in the first class *transitive* verbs only, and in the last all verbs used *intransitively*. To this classification it is objected. 1st. That it makes active and passive two different classes, whereas they constitute properly but one class, under two different forms. Active and passive are in fact but different forms or parts of one and the same verb, and consequently must be regarded as belonging to one class. § 21 Obs. 1.—2d. It confines the use of the term “transitive” to the active voice, whereas verbs in the passive form are as really transitive as in the active form. § 21, as above. 3d. If this inaccuracy be corrected by referring all transitive verbs, whether active or passive in form to one class, the term “Neuter” (neither of the two) will be inappropriate as a designation for the class to which it is now applied.

3. KIRKHAM'S DIVISION.—The division of Murray, however, is better than that of Kirkham, Smith, and some others, who agree with Murray, in dividing verbs into *active*, *passive*, and *neuter*, but differ from him in ranking what they call intransitive verbs, under the general head of active verbs, and designating by the term “neuter”, those verbs only which are supposed not to denote action at all, but only *being* in a certain state, and that of course not a state of action. This division is liable to all the objections that lie against the division of Murray, and to others still more serious, as;

1st. It creates a distinction between intransitive and neuter verbs, which it is often very difficult to make, and when made, whether correctly or not, is of no use whatever in grammar, as those verbs called intransitive, and those called neuter, in construction, are always used in precisely the same way,—they neither have nor need a regimen.

2d. It unites in one class in Etymology, words which must be distinguished in Syntax, namely, transitive and intransitive verbs, the former of which, in the active voice, always have a regimen,

and the latter never, but are used in the same way as neuter verbs. Whenever an intransitive verb takes a regimen, it thereby becomes transitive, and should be so denominated.

3d. By confining the term *neuter* to verbs which do not express action, whenever, in construction, verbs of this class are used transitively, as often happens, we are led to regard as *active* a verb, whose characteristic is that it expresses no action whatever. For example; when we say of a person, "He lived and died in peace with all men," "lived" and "died" are both neuter verbs, i.e. they express neither action nor passion. But when we say, "he lived the life and died the death of the righteous," they both become active and transitive verbs, and yet neither of them express any more action in this case than they did in the other.

4. BROWN'S DIVISION.—Mr. Brown, and some others with him divide verbs into four classes. *Active-transitive*, *Active-intransitive*, *Passive*, and *Neuter*. This differs from the preceding only in dividing the active verbs of that division into two classes, active-transitive, and active-intransitive—a distinction also made in the other case in the form of an observation. It is of course liable to nearly the same objections. This four-fold division is faulty in the following respects. 1st. The first and third properly constitute but one class, as they both express transitive action, and differ only in form, the one being in the active voice and the other in the passive. 2d. In a four-fold division of verbs, the term "neuter" (neither of the *two*) as a designation of one class has no appropriate meaning. 3d. The second and fourth divisions should be classed under one head, as they are both intransitive, and are used in the construction of sentences in precisely the same way.

5. It has been already noticed that verbs usually neuter and intransitive, are sometimes used transitively. In such cases, they should be denominated transitive verbs. In like manner, transitive verbs are sometimes used intransitively. When we say of a person that "he reads, writes, and converses well, labors diligently, lives happily, and sleeps soundly," we have six verbs, of which the first two are in sense, active-transitive verbs, because a person cannot read or write without reading or writing something, and yet it is manifest there is nothing active or transitive intended to be expressed; the whole idea conveyed by these words in this sentence, is simply "he is a good reader and a good writer." "Reads," and "writes," here, are just as intransitive as "converses," or "labors," or "sleeps"—in fact, that all the six verbs are used in a manner precisely alike, to express certain habits, capacities, or states, of the subject "he." It is manifest, therefore, that in parsing such a sentence, "reads" and "writes" should be described as transitive verbs used intransitively, or more simply as intransitives. From all these facts taken together, I think the following positions are fully warranted, viz:

1st. That the presence or the absence of action, simply consi-

dered, does not form a proper characteristic for a useful classification of verbs.

2d. That the only distribution of verbs of any utility, in Syntax, is that which is founded, (not on the intrinsic meaning of the word, but) on the use made of it in the construction of a sentence.

6 The classification in the text, is founded on this principle, and while it avoids most of the objections to the classifications already mentioned, it has also the following advantages:

1st. It divides all verbs into two classes, Transitive and Intransitive, distinguished by a clear and definite characteristic, derived from their use in the construction of sentences. To the first, belong those which are used transitively, whatever be their meaning or form; and to the second all that are used intransitively, whether they denote action or not. §19.

2d. This arrangement and nomenclature, leaves the terms *Active* and *Passive*, at liberty to be applied exclusively to the two forms which all transitive verbs assume, called the active and passive voice.

3d. It dispenses with the term *neuter* altogether, as applied to verbs, and leaves it to be appropriated in grammar to the designation of gender only.

This classification of the verb has been adopted in the best grammars of the Greek and Latin languages, and in some respectable English grammars lately published; it is advocated by Mr. Webster, in his dissertations on the English language;—is adopted in his English Grammar, and dictionary; and from its greater simplicity, accuracy, and utility, appears likely to prevail.

7. MOODS AND TENSES.—In the observations on the Moods and Tenses in their proper place, all has been said that seems to be necessary.

IV. GRAMMATICAL NOMENCLATURE.

EVERY science, and every art, has its particular nomenclature, or vocabulary of technical terms, which are employed for the purpose of expressing technically, its leading materials, facts, principles, divisions, &c. These terms are generally derived from the Greek or Latin, probably because these languages being now dead, and their words consequently not liable to change, are considered, for this reason, a better source than any other, for words of this description. The convenience and utility of such terms, are universally acknowledged, and they are preferred to other equivalent terms in common use in the language, because having no other meaning nor use than what belongs to them as technical terms, whenever they are used, every person who understands the science, knows precisely what is meant. The fact of their being of foreign origin—of fixed and determinate signification, and not employed in the language to denote any thing else, is not only no objection to their use, but is in reality a decided advantage. A se-

rious proposal to abandon, in Chemistry for example, such terms as *gas*, *acid*, *oxygen*, *hydrogen*, &c. and to substitute their English equivalents *air*, *sour*, *sour-making*, *water-making*, and the like, would be considered not only injurious, but ridiculous. And yet this very thing, some men are attempting to do, in the science of grammar, and urging it as a great improvement. They have such an aversion to the “dead languages,” and every thing “foreign,” and are so much afraid of the “genius of the English language,” being contaminated by such connections, that they are actually urging us to abandon such terms in grammar, as Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Verb, &c. and to use in their stead, such words as *name*, *substitute*, *describer*, *asserter*, and the like, because as is alleged, they possess more of the character of English words,—i. e. they propose to abandon the peculiar and appropriate technical terms of the science, and to employ words in a great measure disqualified for this purpose, by the very fact of their being already used for other purposes. In order to illustrate this, take a single example. When we use the word “Noun,” every one knows that we speak of a class of words so denominated in grammar, because the term has no other meaning. But if instead of the term *noun*, we use the word *name*, this precision and clearness is immediately lost, because this word being applied to other things, is less definite in its meaning.

“Ambiguam tellure nova Salamina futuram.”

To put this matter to the test of experiment, let any one ask a boy acquainted with grammar, “What is a Noun?” and he will answer at once, and correctly, by giving its definition in grammar, “A noun is the name of a thing.” “But if instead of this you ask him, “What is a *name*?” unless he know beforehand that you mean *name* in a grammatical sense, he will probably be at a loss for an answer; and on referring to Johnson or Walker, (who never heard of the term “name” applied in this way,) he will find it has, according to them, nine different shades of meaning, and no one of these would be a correct answer to the question proposed. If in this way, we should go through the whole nomenclature of grammar, and instead of the technical terms now in use, and well understood, we should employ a translation of them, or their equivalent in English words in common use, it would be manifest that by such a change, the whole science would at once become vague and unintelligible—a mass of confusion. For these reasons, I think there can be no doubt, that in grammar, as well as in other sciences, technical terms appropriate in themselves, having but one specific meaning, and that accurately defined, are much more convenient and useful, both for teacher and pupil, than any other terms can be; and that every attempt to simplify grammar by substituting words in common use in the English language, for the technical terms now employed, or others of similar character, will tend only to greater obscurity and difficulty.

V. GLOSSARY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS.

- ACCENT**, [Lat. *accentus* from *ac-cino*, *accentum*, *ad*. and *cano*, to sing to,] stress of voice laid on a particular syllable.
- ACCIDENT**, [Lat. *accido*, to fall to, to happen, *ad* and *cado*,] something that falls to, i. e. belongs to a word, but not essential to it; as person, gender, number, case, comparison, mood, tense, &c.
- ACTIVE**, [Lat. *activus*, active from *ago*, to act,] denotes a form of the verb, the subject of which acts, or is active. In many grammars, a class of verbs which express action.
- ADJECTIVE**, [Lat. *Adjectivus*, added, joined to, from *adjicio*, i. e. *ad*. to, and *jacio*, to lay, put, &c.] the designation of a class of words. See definition, §13.
- ADVERB**, [Lat. from *ad*, to, and *verbum*, a word, the verb, i. e. added or joined to a verb,] a class of words. See definition, §33.
- ALLEGORY**, [Gr. ἀλληγορία, from ἀλληγορέω, to interpret differently from what the words seem to imply, from ἄλλος, and ἀγορεύω, to speak in public, Th. ἀγορά, a forum or public place,] a figure of speech. See def. §94.
- ANTITHESIS**, [Gr. ἀντίθεσις, opposition, contrast, from ἀντι, opposite, and τίθημι, to place; hence to place opposite or in contrast,] a figure of speech. See def. §94.
- APOSTROPHE**, [Gr. ἀποστροφή, turning away, viz: from the subject of discourse to another object, ἀπό, from, and στρέφω, to turn,] a figure of speech. See def. §94.
- APPOSITION**, [Lat. *appositus*, placed near or together,] a noun placed near, or by another, in the same construction, for the purpose of further defining it, is said to be in *apposition*; as “Cicero, the Orator.”
- ARTICLE**, [Lat. *Articulus*, a joint, from *artus*, a limb,] one of the parts of speech. See def. §4; and for the reason of the name, App. III, 1.
- AUXILIARY**, [Lat. *auxiliaris*, helping, from *auxilium*, aid,] a designation of certain verbs. §20.
- CASE**, [Lat. *Casus*, from *cado*,—*casum*, to fall,] hence the particular circumstances into which a person or thing falls, or happens to be, is called his, or its case. So a noun in certain circumstances, is in one case, in different circumstances it is in another case. See def. §11.
- CLIMAX**, [Gr. κλίμαξ, a scale or ladder,] a figure in rhetoric, by which the sense of the expressions rises gradually in strength, from step to step. See def. §94.
- COLON**, [Gr. κῶλον, a member or limb; hence in grammar, a member or part of a sentence,] a mark (:) by which a member of a sentence is indicated.
- COMMA**, [Gr. κόμμα, a segment, from κόπτω, to cut off,] a mark (,) indicating the smallest segment or division of a sentence.
- COMPARATIVE**, [Lat. from *comparo*, to compare,] a form of the adjective, expressing a greater or less degree than the positive.

- CONCORD**, [Lat. *concor*s, agreeing; *concordia*, agreement,] a term in Syntax denoting the agreement of words in certain accidents. See def. §45.
- CONJUGATION**, [Lat. *conjugatio*, from *con*, together, and *jugo*, to yoke or join,] arranging and joining the different parts of a verb together in their proper order.
- CONJUNCTION**, [Lat. *conjunctio*, from *con*, together, and *jungo*, to join,] a word whose use is to join together. See def. §36.
- CONSONANT**, [Lat. *consonans*, sounding together, *con* and *sono*,] a letter sounded not alone, but together with a vowel.
- COPULA**, [Lat. *copula*, a band or tie,] that by which the subject and predicate of a proposition are coupled together; sometimes a separate word, as *am*, *is*, *are*, &c. and sometimes implied in the predicate itself, as I write, i. e. I *am* writing.
- DECLENSION**, [Lat. *declinatio*, from *declino*, to decline,] declining or changing the termination of nouns, &c. so as to form the oblique cases.
- DECLINABLE**, [Lat. from the same,] that may be declined or changed in termination.
- DEMONSTRATIVE**, [Lat. from *demonstro*, to point out, or shew,] a word that indicates or points out clearly, as *this* man, *that* book, &c.
- DIÆRESIS**, [Gr. *διαίρεσις*, a division, *δια* and *αἰρέω*,] a mark (") over the last of two vowels, shewing they are to be divided in pronunciation, as ærial, a-erial.
- DIPHTHONG**, [Gr. *δίφθογγος*, a double sound, from *δις*, twice, and *φθόγγος*, a sound,] the union of two vowel sounds in one syllable.
- DISSYLLABLE**, [Gr. *δισσυσλλαβή*, *δίς*, twice, and *συσλλαβή*,] a word of two syllables. See Syllable.
- DISTRIBUTIVE**, [Lat. *distributus*, from *distribuo*, to distribute or divide,] a word that distributes or divides; as *each*, *every*, &c. shewing the individuals of a collective number as taken separately.
- ELLIPSIS**, [Gr. *ἔλλειψις*, omission, leaving out, *εν*, and *λείπω*, to leave,] a figure by which a word or words are omitted, which belong to the full grammatical construction of a sentence. See def. §94.
- EMPHASIS**, [Gr. *ἐμφασις*, *εν*, and *φάσις*, a charge, a shewing,] stress or force laid on a certain word or part of a sentence, *shewing* or making it conspicuous.
- ETYMOLOGY**, [Gr. *ἐτυμολογία*, from *ἐτυμολογέω*, to derive a word from its original, and thus to discover its true meaning—*ἐτυμον*, true, and *λέγω*, to tell,] the derivation of words. Also, that part or division in grammar, which treats of their formation, inflections, and modifications.
- FEMININE**, [Lat. *femininus*, from *femina*, a woman,] the name of the gender of words denoting females.
- FUTURE**, [Lat. *Futurus*, about to be,] the name of a tense denoting time yet to come.
- FUTURE-PERFECT**, [Lat. *Futurum-perfectum*,] a tense denoting an act or event completed at some future time.
- GENDER**, [Lat. *genus*, Fr. *genre*, kind, or class.] See def. §7, and App. III. 2, 2d.

- GRAMMAR**, [Gr. *γραμματική*, from *γράμμα*, a letter, a writing, and that from *γράφω*, to write. Fr. *grammaire*,] the science of letters or language. See def. p. 1, and App. I, p. 189.
- HYPERBOLE**, [Greek, *ὑπεροβολή*, throwing over or beyond, hence excess, exaggeration, *ὑπέρ*, over, and *δίδλω*, to throw,] a figure of speech, defined §94.
- IMPERFECT**, [Lat. *Imperfectum*, not completed,] a tense properly denoting an act, &c. not completed at a certain past time. §23, 2 and 24, II.
- INDICATIVE**, [Lat. *indico*,—*are*, to declare,] a mood or form of the verb which simply declares. See def. §22.
- INFINITIVE**, [Lat. *in*, negative, and *finitus*, limited or bounded,] a mood of the verb not limited by person or number. §22, 5, and Obs. 4.
- INTERJECTION**, [Lat. *Interjectio*, from *inter*, between, or among, and *jacio*, to throw,] a word or phrase having no grammatical connection with a sentence, but as it were thrown into it, to express some sudden emotion of the mind.
- INTRANSITIVE**, [Lat. *in*, negative, and *transitivus*,] not passing over. See "Transitive."
- IRONY**, [Gr. *εἰρωνεία*, from *εἶρων*, a dissembler,] a figure of speech. See def. §94.
- MASCULINE**, [Lat. from *mas*, a male,] the gender of nouns and pronouns which designate males.
- METAPHOR**, [Gr. *μεταφορά*, from *μεταφέρω*, to transfer,] a word expressing similitude without the signs of comparison, by which the property of one object is, as it were, transferred to another, thus when we say, "that man is a fox," the meaning is, "that man is like a fox;" the figure *transfers* the leading property of the *fox*, to the *man*. See def. §94.
- METONYMY**, [Gr. *μετωνυμία*, a change of name; from *μετά*, denoting change, and *ὄνομα*, a name,] a figure by which one word is put for another. See def. §94.
- METRE**, [Gr. from *μέτρον*, a measure,] a composition, the lines of which contain a certain *measure* of long and short syllables, arranged according to rule. See def. §93.
- MONOSYLLABLE**, [Gr. from *μόνος*, only, or one, and *σλλαβή*, a syllable,] a word of one syllable. See Syllable.
- MOOD OR MODE**, [Lat. *modus*, manner,] a form of the verb expressing its meaning in a certain *manner*. See def. §22.
- NEUTER**, [Lat. *neuter*, neither,] an epithet given to nouns which are neither masculine nor feminine. Also, in some grammars, to verbs denoting being or a state of being.
- NOMINATIVE** (case,) [Lat. *nominativus*, from *nomino*, to name,] the first case of a noun or pronoun, or that used when a person or thing is simply *named*.
- NOUN**, [Lat. *nomen* a name,] a word that is the name of an object, is in grammar called a *Noun*. See def. § 6.
- OBJECTIVE** (case,) [Lat. *objectivus* from *ob* and *jacio*, to throw to, against, or in the way of,] the case of a noun or pronoun which denotes the object of a transitive verb, or preposition.

ORTHOGRAPHY, [Gr. ὀρθογραφία, from ὀρθός, right, and γραφή writing,] writing words correctly, i. e. with the proper letters.

PARALEPSIS, [Gr. παράλειψις, omission, from παρά, and λείπω, to leave,] a figure of speech, § 94.

PARENTHESIS, [Gr. παρένθεσις, from παρά and ἐντίθημι, to insert,] a word, phrase, or sentence *inserted* in a sentence for explanation, but not connected with it in construction, and therefore, usually distinguished by a mark at the beginning and end, thus ().

PARSE, [Derivation uncertain,] to resolve a sentence into its elements, or *parts* of speech. § 38.

PARTICIPLE, [Lat. *participium*, from *pars*, a part, and *capio* to take,] a part of the verb which partakes of the verb and the adjective, having its signification and time from the former, and declension and construction from the latter.

PASSIVE (voice,) [Lat. *Passivus*, from *patior* to suffer, or to be affected in any way,] a form of the verb which indicates that its subject or nominative receives, or is affected by the action expressed by the verb. § 21.

PERFECT, [Lat. *Perfectum*, from *perficio*, to perfect or complete,] a tense of the verb, denoting that the action or state expressed by it is now completed or past. See def. § 23, 4, and § 24, III.

PERIOD, [Gr. περίοδος, a circuit, from περί, round and ὁδός, a way,] a complete sentence, one which has its construction

completed, or *brought round*.

PERSONIFICATION, [Lat. from *persona* a person, and *facio*, to make,] a figure, by which inanimate objects are regarded as persons, or as it were, *made* so. See def. § 94.

PLUPERFECT, [Lat. *plus quam perfectum*, more than perfected or completed, i. e. completed before a certain time now past,] the designation of a tense defined. § 23, 4, and 24, 4.

POLYSYLLABLE, [Gr. from πολύς, many, and συλλαβή, a syllable,] a word of many syllables. See Syllable.

POTENTIAL, [Lat. *potentialis*, belonging to power or ability, from *potens*, able,] the designation of a certain mood of the verb defined, § 22, 2.

PREDICATE, [Lat. *prædicatus*, from *prædico*, to assert, or declare,] that part of a proposition which contains what is affirmed or asserted of its subject, § 43.

PREPOSITION, [Lat. *præpositio*, from *præpositus*, placed before,] a class of words so called, because their *position* in a sentence is *before* the word governed by them. See def. § 35,

PRONOUN, [Lat. *pronomén*, from *pro*, for, i. e. instead of, and *nomen*, a name or noun,] a word used for, or instead of a noun.

PROPOSITION, [Lat. *propositio*, from *pro*, before, and *positus*, placed,] a simple sentence, in which a distinct idea is *proposed*, or set before the mind,

PROSODY, [Gr. προσωδία, from πρὸς, with or belonging to, and ᾠδή, an ode,] *anciently*,

the doctrine of accents and quantity, &c. See p. 163.

PROSOPOPEIA, [Gr. *προσωποποιία*, from *πρόσωπον*, a person, and *ποιέω*, to make,] the Greek term for Personification.

SEMICOLON, [Lat. *semi* half, and Gr. *colon*,] a point (;), denoting a division of a sentence less than a colon.

SIMILE, [Lat. *simile*, like,] a figure of speech, by which one thing is compared or likened to another. § 94.

SOLECISM, [Gr. *σολοικισμός*, supposed to be derived from Solii, the name of a people in Cilicia, who spoke the Greek language very ungrammatically,] a gross violation of the idiom, or Syntax of a language.

SUBJECT, [Lat. *subjectus*, from *subjicio*, to place before or under, (the view,)] in a proposition, the person or thing spoken of.

SUBJUNCTIVE (mood,) [Lat. *subjunctivus*, from *subjungo*, to subjoin or annex to,] a mood of the verb never used independently, and by itself, but *subjoined* or annexed to the main or leading verb in a sentence. See § 22, 3, and Obs. 2.

SUBSTANTIVE, [Lat. *Substantivus*, from *substantia*, substance] the same as noun, viz. a class of words denoting things that have *substance*, or existence, material or immaterial.

SUPERLATIVE, [Lat. *superlativus*, from *super*, above, and *latus*, carried i. e. carried above, viz. other things,] a form of the adjective, expressing a degree of the quality *carried above*, or superior to that in any of several objects compared.

SYLLABLE, [Gr. *συλλαβή*, from *σύν* together, and *λαμβάνω*, to take,] a letter or number of letters *taken together*, and forming one vocal sound, § 1.

SYNECDOCHE, [Gr. *συνεκδοχή*, from *σύν*, and *ἐκδέχομαι*, to take,] a figure of speech defined, § 94.

SYNTAX, [Gr. *σύνταξις*, from *σύν* together, and *τάσσω* to put in order] the proper arrangement or *putting together* of words in a sentence.

TENSE, [Lat. *tempus*, time, Fr. *tems*,] a form of the verb by which the time of an act, &c. is indicated.

TRANSITIVE, [Lat. *transitivus*, from *transeo*, to go or pass over,] the name of a class of verbs, which express an act that *passes over* from an agent to an object, § 19, 3.

TRIPHTHONG, [Gr. from *τρεῖς*, three, and *φθίγγυς*, a sound,] the union of three vowels in one sound.

TRISSYLLABLE, [Gr. *τρεῖς*, three, and *συλλαβή*, a syllable,] a word of three syllables.

VERB, [Lat. *verbum*, a word,] the name of a class of words which being the chief or most important in a sentence, were called *verbum*, the word, viz. by way of eminence.

VERSE, [Lat. *versus*, from *verto*, to turn,] a species of composition, in which every line is measured, so as to contain a certain number of feet, at the end of which the writer *turns* to a new line.

VOWEL, [Lat. *vocalis*, from *vox*, the voice,] a letter which marks a distinct and independent sound, without the aid of other letters.

VI. FRENCH WORDS AND PHRASES.

THE following French words and phrases, are often met with in English writers. They are here explained for the benefit of those unacquainted with the French language. In the following representation of French sounds, *â* has the sound of *a* in *hat*;—*ã* of *a* in *lade*;—*â* of *a* in *full*;—*e* of *e* in *her*, *ẽ* of *e* in *bed*;—*i* of *i* in *sit*;—*õ* of *o* in *hot*, *ô* of *o* in *bone*;—*u* of *u* in *cur*; *oo* of *oo* in *coo*. The French *u*, and *eu*, and *œu*, have no corresponding sounds in the English language, nor can they be represented by letters; the first is intermediate between *o* and *u*, and is pronounced with the lips nearly closed (the upper projecting), leaving only a small hole in the middle, as if to blow a flute: this sound is here represented by *u*;—*eu*, and *œu* are more full and open than *u*; they are here represented by *u*:—*r* is sounded hard like *rr*. The nasal vowels *an*, *in*, *on*, *un*, cannot be represented by letters, The articulation of the *n* must end when the tip of the tongue is at the root of the lower teeth, without any motion towards the roof of the mouth. The English syllables *ang*, *aing*, *ong*, *ung*, though not a correct, are still the nearest representation of the sound that can be made to the eye. Indeed, it is impossible by means of letters to represent the correct pronunciation of most French words. This can be done only to the ear. The following therefore is to be regarded only as the nearest that can be given; and for this I am indebted to my friend Prof. Molinard.

Aide-de-camp, aid-de-kâng, an assistant to a general. [time.

A la bonne heure, *ã lâ bonn urr*, at an early hour; in the nick of Affaire de coeur, *affair de kurr*, a love affair; an amour.

A la mode, *ã lâ mōd*, according to the fashion.

Allons, *allōng*, come, let us go.

A propos, *ã prō-pō*, to the purpose, opportunely.

Au fait, *õ fay*, well acquainted with, thoroughly versed in.

Au fond, *õ fōng*, to the bottom, or main point.

Auto da fé, *õ-tō-dã fã*; (*Portuguese*,) burning of heretics.

Bagatelle, *bagatell*, a trifle.

Beau monde, *bō mongd*, the gay world; people of fashion.

Beaux esprits, *bōz espree*, men of wit,

Billet doux, *bee-yẽ doo*, a love letter.

Bon môt, *bong mō*, a piece of wit; a jest; a quibble.

Bon ton, *bong tong*, in high fashion.

Bon gré, *mal gré*, *bong grã*, *mal grã*, with a good, or ill grace, whether the party will or not.

Bon jour, *bong zhoor*, good day.

Boudoir, *boo-dô-âr*, a small private apartment.

Canaille, *cã-nã-ye*, lowest of the people; rabble; mob.

Carte blanche, *kart blângsh*, a blank sheet of paper; uncondi-

Château, *shã-tō*, a country seat.

[tional terms.

Chef d'œuvre, *shẽ duvr*, a master-piece.

Ci devant, *see devâng*, formerly.

Comme il faut, *kom il fō*, as it should be.

- Con amore, kon âmōrā, (*Italian*,) with love ; gladly. [stroke.
 Coup de grâce, koo de grâss, a stroke of mercy ; the finishing
 Coup de main, koo de maing, a sudden or bold enterprise.
 Coup d'œil, koo du-ec-ye, a quick glance of the eye.
 D'ailleurs, dā yurr, moreover, besides.
 Débat, dā-bu, the beginning ; the lead ; first appearance.
 Dernier ressort, dern-yā rēssorr, the last shift or resource.
 Dépôt, dā-pō, a store or magazine. [meaning.
 Double entendre, (à double entente,) doobl âng-tângdr, double
 Douceur, doos-surr, a present or bribe.
 Dieu et mon droit, dec-u ā mong drō-ah, God and my right.
 Éclat, ā-clā, splendor.—Elève, ā-lév, a pupil.
 Elite, ā-lect, choice ; prime ; of the better sort.
 Embonpoint, âng-bong-pō-aing, in good condition ; jolly.
 En flûte, âng flute, carrying guns on the upper deck only.
 En masse, âng-mass, in a body, or mass.
 En passant, âng passâng, by the way ; in passing.
 Ennui, âng-nu-ee, wearisomeness.—Entrée, âng-trā, entrance.
 Faux pas, fō pā, a slip ; misconduct.
 Fête, fayte, a feast or entertainment.
 Honi soi qui mal y pense, hō-nee soah kce mal ce pângce, evil be
 Hauteur, hō-turr, haughtiness. [to him that evil thinks.
 Je ne sais quoi, zhe ne say koah, I know not what.
 Jeu de mots, zhu de mō, a play upon words.
 Jeu d'esprit, zhu desprece, a display of wit ; a witticism.
 Mal à propos, māl ā prō-pō, unfit, unseasonable.
 Mauvaise honte, mō-vāze hongt, unbecoming bashfulness.
 Môt du guet, mō du gā, a watch-word.
 N'importe, naing-port, it matters not.
 Nous verrons, noo verrong, we shall see.
 Outré, oo-trā, eccentric ; blustering ; not gentle.
 Petit maître, petī maitr, a beau, a fop.
 Pis aller, pee zallā, a last resource.
 Protégé, pro-tā-zhā, a person patronised and protected.
 Recherché, re-shair-shā, rare ; scarce ; much sought after.
 Rouge, roozhe, red, or a kind of red paint for the face.
 Sang froid, sang fro-ah, cold blood ; indifference.
 Sans cérémonie, sang seremonee, without ceremony.
 Savant, sǎ-vâng, a wise or learned man.
 Soi-disant, soah-deezâng, self-called ; pretended.
 Tant mieux, tâng mee-u, so much the better.
 Tapis, tā-pee, the carpet.—Traît, tray, feature, touch, arrow.
 Tête à tête, tâte ā tâte, face to face ; a private conversation.
 Tout ensemble, too tâng-sângbl, taken as a whole ; the general
 Unique, uneek, singular. [appearance.
 Un bel esprit, ung bel espree, a wit, a virtuoso.
 Valet-de-chambre, valē de-shângbr, a chamber footman.
 Vis à vis, vce zā vee, opposite ; face to face.
 Vive le roi, veev-le-roah, live the king

VII. LATIN WORDS AND PHRASES.

The pronunciation has not been added to the Latin, because *every letter is sounded*, *c* final, not excepted.

Ab initio, from the beginning.	Data, things granted.
Ab urbe condita, from the building of the city; abridged thus, A. U. C.	De facto, from the fact, in reality
Ad captandum vulgus, to ensnare the vulgar.	De jure, from the law, justly.
Ad infinitum, to infinity.	Dei gratia, by the grace or favor of God.
Ad libitum, at pleasure.	Deo volente, God willing. D. V.
Ad referendum, for consideration.	Desunt cætera, the rest are wanting
Ad valorem, according to value.	Desideratum, something desirable, a thing wanted.
A fortiori, with stronger reason.	Dramatis personæ, characters represented.
Alias, otherwise.	Durante vita, during life.
Alibi, elsewhere.	Durante placito, during pleasure.
Alma mater, university, benign mother.	E pluribus unum, one composed of many.
Anglice, in English.	Ergo, therefore.
Anno domini, in the year of our Lord—A. D.	Errata, errors.—Erratum, an error.
Anno mundi, in the year of the world—A. M.	Esto perpetua, let it be perpetual.
A posteriori, from the latter, from behind.	Et cætera, and the rest, contr. &c.
A priori, from the former, from before, or from the cause.	Ex cathedra, from the chair, with authority.
Arcanum, a secret.	Excerpta, extracts.
Arcana imperii, state secrets.	Exempli gratia, as for example, contracted e. g.
Argumentum ad hominem, an appeal to the practices or professed principles of the adversary.	Ex officio, officially, by virtue of office.
Argumentum ad judicium, an appeal to the common sense of mankind.	Ex parte, on one side.
Argumentum ad fidem, an appeal to our faith.	Ex tempore, without premeditation
Argumentum ad populum, an appeal to the people.	Fac simile, exact copy, or resemblance.
Argumentum ad passionem, an appeal to the passions.	Fiat, let it be done, or made.
Audi alteram partem, hear both sides.	Flagrante bello, during hostilities.
Bona fide, in good faith, in reality.	Gratis, for nothing.
Contra, against.	Hora fugit, the hour or time flies.
Cacoëthes scribendi, an itch for writing.	Humanum est errare, to err is human.
Cæteris paribus, other circumstances being equal.	Ibidem, in the same place.
Caput mortuum, the worthless remains, dead head.	Idem, the same.
Compos mentis, in one's senses.	Id est, that is, contr. i. e.
Cum privilegio, with privilege.	Ignoramus, an ignorant fellow, a dunce.
	In loco, in this place.
	Imprimis, in the first place.
	In terrorem, as a warning.
	In propria persona, in his own person.
	In statu quo, in the former state.
	Inst. for instante, the present.
	Ipse dixit, on his sole assertion

- Ipso facto, by the fact itself.
 Ipso jure, by the law itself.
 Item, also, article.
 Jure divino, by divine right.
 Jure humano, by human law.
 Jus gentium, the law of nations.
 Locum tenens, deputy, substitute.
 Labor omnia vincit, labour overcomes every thing.
 Licentia vatium, a poetical license.
 Linguae lapsus, a slip of the tongue.
 Magna charta, the great charter, the basis of our laws and liberties.
 Memento mori, remember death.
 Memorabilia, matters deserving of record.
 Memorandum, a thing to be remembered.
 Meum et tuum, mine and thine.
 Multum in parvo, much in little, a great deal in a few words.
 Mutatis mutandis, the necessary changes being made.
 Mutato nomine, the name being changed.
 Nemo me impune lacesset, no one shall provoke me with impunity.
 Ne plus ultra, no farther, nothing beyond.
 Nolens volens, willing or unwilling.
 Non compos mentis, not of a sound mind.
 Ne quid nimis, too much of one thing is good for nothing.
 Nisi dominus frustra, unless the Lord be with us, all efforts are in vain.
 Nem. con. (for nemine contradicente) none opposing.
 Nem dis. (for nemine dissentiente) none disagreeing.
 Omnibus, for all, a public conveyance.
 Ore tenus, from the mouth.
 O tempora, O mores, O the times, O the manners.
 Omnes, all.
 Onus, burden.
 Passim, every where.
 Per se, by itself, alone.
 Posse comitatus, the power of the county.
 Prima facie, at first view or at first sight.
 Primum mobile, the main spring.
 Pro and con. for and against.
 Pro bono publico, for the good of the public.
 Pro loco et tempore, for the place, and time.
 Pro re nata, for a special business.
 Pro rege, lege, et grege; for the king, the constitution, and the people.
 Quo animo, with what mind.
 Quo jure, by what right.
 Quoad, as far as.
 Quondam, formerly, former.
 Res publica, the commonwealth.
 Resurgam, I shall rise again.
 Rex, a king—Regina, a queen.
 Senatus consultum, a decree of senate, S. C.
 Seriatim, in regular order.
 Sine die, without specifying any particular day.
 Sine qua non, an indispensable pre-requisite or condition.
 Statu quo, the state in which it was.
 Sub poena, under a penalty.
 Sui generis, of its own kind i. e. singular.
 Supra, above.
 Summum bonum, the chief good.
 Tria juncta in uno, three joined in one.
 Toties quoties, as often as.
 Una voce, with one voice, unanimously.
 Ultimus, the last, (contr. ult.)
 Utile dulci, the useful with the pleasant.
 Verbatim, word for word.
 Versus, against.
 Vade mecum, go with me; a book fit for being a constant companion.
 Vale, farewell.
 Via, by the way of.
 Vice, in the room of.
 Vice versa, the reverse.
 Vide, see, (contr. v.)
 Vide ut supra, see as above.
 Vis poetica, poetic genius.
 Viva voce, orally; by the living voice.
 Vox populi, the voice of the people.
 Vulgo, commonly.

VIII. LAW GLOSSARY.

[Containing an explanation of some law terms and phrases in common use.]

Accessory.—One guilty of a felonious offence, not as principal, but by participation; as by advice, command, concealment, &c.

Ac etiam.—The clause in a writ, where the action requires bail, stating the true cause of action.

Act of God.—Accidents from physical causes, which cannot be prevented; as the death of a person.

Alibi.—At another place, a plea often set up.

Animus.—the mind, the intention. *Quo animo?* with what intent. *Animo furandi*, with the intent to steal, &c.

Arson.—The crime of maliciously burning the dwelling or out-house of another man.

Assault and Battery.—*Assault*, the attempt to do corporeal violence or hurt to another.—*Battery*, the actual doing of it.

Assumpsit.—An action upon the case on assumpsit, is an action for the compensation in damages for the breach or violation of any *parol*, contract (express or implied, verbal or written,) or promise.

Attachment.—A taking of the person, goods, or estate, by a writ or precept in a civil action, to secure a debt or demand.

Attainder.—The sentence of a competent tribunal, upon a person convicted of treason or felony, which judgment attaints or corrupts his blood, so that he can no longer inherit lands, attended with forfeiture of property, loss of reputation, and disqualification to be a witness in a court of law.

Baron et feme.—the law term for husband and wife.

Burglary.—The act or crime of breaking into a house by night, with intent to commit a felony.

Capias, (that you take,) a writ or process, it is of two sorts, viz.

Capias ad respondendum.—A judicial writ before judgment, to take the defendant and make him answer the plaintiff.

Capias ad satisfaciendum.—(Commonly called a *Ca. Sa.*) a writ commanding the sheriff to take the body of the defendant, and him safely keep, &c.

Carte blanche.—The signature of a person on a blank paper, with room above to be afterwards filled with a promissory note, contract, &c.

Cassetur bulla vel breve, that the bill or writ be quashed.

Certiorari.—A writ issued from a superior to an inferior tribunal, commanding them to *certify*, or to return the record or proceedings before them, by which the cause is removed from the one to the other.

Cognovit, (he has confessed,) is where the defendant having no available defence, gives the plaintiff an acknowledgment or written confession of the action, and suffers judgment to pass against him by default, i. e. without trial.

Crime.—In a general sense, a *crime* is an act that violates a law divine or human. In a more restricted sense, it denotes an offence or violation of public law, of a deeper and more atrocious nature, such as treason, murder, robbery, theft, arson, &c. Minor wrongs against public rights are called *misdemeanors*, against individuals or private rights, *trespasses*.

Declaration.—A statement in legal form of the circumstance which constitutes the plaintiff's cause of action.

Demurrer, is a pleading, which admits all such facts alleged by the adverse party as are *well pleaded*, and refers all the questions arising upon them to the court: it does not deny the truth, but only the legal sufficiency of the allegations demurred to.

Distrain.—To make a seizure of goods.

Distress.—The act of distraining; taking any personal chattels from a wrong doer to answer a demand, or procure satisfaction for a wrong committed.

Execution.—An instrument, warrant or official order, by which an officer is empowered to carry a judgment into effect.

Ex post facto, (laws.) An *ex post facto law*, is one which operates upon a subject not liable to it at the time the law was made; or a law which punishes acts already committed, in a manner in which they were not by law punishable when committed. Such laws are prohibited by the constitution of the United States.

Felony.—A legal term for all offences which may be punished by imprisonment in the States prison.

Fieri facias, (that you cause it to be done,) a judicial writ of execution, familiarly called by contraction, *Fi. Fa.*

Testatum fieri facias.—An execution issued to another county, than the one in which the *vendue* is laid.

Forma pauperis.—Poor persons may sue in *forma pauperis*, and have writs and counsel assigned without fee.

Habeas Corpus, is a writ issued by a judge, directed to any person having another in custody, commanding him to produce him, or to show cause why he is in custody,

Homicide, the killing of any human being. *Justifiable homicide* has no share of guilt at all;—*excusable homicide*, very little;—*felonious homicide* is the highest crime against the law of nature, that a man is capable of committing, and includes self-murder, man-slaughter and murder.

Infant.—A person under twenty-one years of age, and incapable of making contracts.

In limine.—In or at the beginning.

Issue.—The point depending in a suit on which the parties join, and put the case to trial by a jury.—*General issue*, denies at once all the indictment or declaration, without new evasive matter.

Larceny, (*Latrocinium*.) Theft—the stealing of any thing below a certain amount is called *petty larceny*;—above that value, *grand larceny*.

Leading question.—A question put in such a way as to indicate the answer which the party wishes to get. The examiner *leads* him to the answer.

Locum tenens.—One who holds the place of another as his deputy.

Mandamus, a writ issued from a superior court to an inferior, or to an officer, commanding them to do certain acts, or to restrain them from doing any thing beyond their jurisdiction.

Nolle prosequi, is used in law where the plaintiff will not proceed any further. In criminal cases it amounts to an abandonment by the public prosecutor, of an indictment. It does not prevent the finding of a new indictment, and therefore, does not operate as an acquittal, and is entered by the order of the court, on the motion of the public prosecutor.

Non assumpsit,—the plea of *Non assumpsit* in an action of *assumpsit*, is the general issue or denial.

Non pros, or *non prosequitur*, the name of a judgment rendered against a plaintiff for neglecting to prosecute his suit.

Non suit, the name of a judgment rendered against a plaintiff, when through defect of evidence or otherwise, he withdraws his cause from the jury, or neglects or refuses to prove his cause.

Nul tiel record, (no such record,) the name of a plea or replication, which denies a record, on which a declaration or plea is founded.

Onus probandi.—Burden of proof. This lies upon the party to a suit who alleges the affirmative. He who has the *onus probandi*, is entitled to begin and close the argument of a case.

Oyer and terminer. Fr. *oyer*, to hear; *terminer*, to determine. The name of the criminal courts which have power to enquire into, hear and determine all treasons, felonies, crimes, and misdemeanors, and deliver the jails of all prisoners therein.

Panel.—A schedule or roll containing the names of jurors, summoned by virtue of a writ of *venire facias*, and annexed to the writ.

Particeps criminis.—A partner in crime.

Plea, is the defendant's answer to the plaintiff's declaration.

Posse comitatus. The armed power of the county, accompanying the sheriff to assist him in serving legal processes.

Prochain amy. Next friend, one who sues for an infant.

Pro confesso. For confessed, as if confessed.

Pro rata.—According to the rate.

Profert and oyer.—When an action is founded upon a deed, (as a bond, covenant, &c.) and the party claims title under it, he must make *profert in curia*, by averring that *he brings here into court* the deed; and craving *oyer* (hearing,) according to the original meaning of the word, is to crave to hear it read, though the immediate object now proposed in demanding *oyer* of a deed, is to obtain a copy of it.

Rectus in curia.—Right in court. One who stands at the bar, and no one objects to him, or prefers any charge against him.

Replevin.—An action or remedy granted on a distress, by which a person whose cattle or goods have been distrained, has them returned to him on giving security, to try the right of taking in a suit at law. The writ by which a distress is replevied.

Scire facias.—A judicial writ founded upon some *record*, and requiring the person against whom it is brought, to *shew cause why* the party bringing it, should not have advantage of such record, or (in the case of a *scire facias*, to repeal letters patent,) why the record should not be annulled and vacated.

Subpœna, (under a penalty,) a judicial writ or command to answer to a suit, or to give evidence in a cause. It derives its name from the words therein, which charge the party to appear at the day and place assigned under a penalty.

Subpœna ad testificandum, a subpœna to testify.

Subpœna duces tecum.—A subpœna, commanding the witness to bring with him books and papers in his possession, belonging to, or wherein the parties are interested, &c.

Tales.—Whenever the panel of jurors is exhausted, the court orders the sheriff to summon from the by-standers, the number of jurors wanted. The persons thus summoned, are called *Tales-men*.

Tort, (*Fr.*)—A wrong or injury.

Traverse, (to cross.) To deny what the opposite party has alleged. To traverse an indictment, &c. is to deny it.

Trespass.—An unlawful act committed on the person, property, or relative rights of another.

Trover, (*Fr. trouver* to find.) An action which a man has against another, who has found or obtained possession of any of his goods, and who refuses to deliver them on demand. It admits the original taking to have been lawful, but denies the right to convert them to his own use. This *conversion* is the gist (git) of the action.

Venire facias. The process on an indictment for any petit misdemeanor. It is of the nature of a summons. Also the writ or summons by which jurors are summoned to appear in court and serve.

Venue.—The statement in a declaration of the county or place, in which the facts are alleged to have occurred, and where the cause is intended to be tried: as, County of Albany, ss.

Verdict, (*verum dictum*, true declaration.)—The answer of a jury given to the court, concerning any matter of fact in any cause, civil or criminal committed to their trial and examination.

Voire dire.—(To speak the truth,) is when a witness previously to his giving evidence in a cause, is sworn as to his interest, &c.

Vi et armis.—With force and arms, words used in a writ of trespass.

Writ.—A precept issued from the proper authority, to the sheriff or other subordinate officer, commanding him to perform some act.

THE END.

BULLIONS'
SERIES OF GRAMMARS,
ENGLISH, LATIN AND GREEK,
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elementary works, differing widely from each other in language and structure will be avoided,—and the progress of the student rendered much more rapid, easy and satisfactory.

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The following notices and recommendations of the works separately, and of the series, both from individuals of the highest standing in the community, and from the public press, will furnish some idea of the plan proposed, and of the manner in which it has been executed

I. THE PRINCIPLES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Comprising the substance of the most approved English Grammars extant—with copious exercises in PARSING and SYNTAX. Fifth edition with an APPENDIX, of various and useful matter, pp. 216, 12 mo. New-York, Robinson, Pratt & Co.

This work, on the plan of Murray's Grammar, has been prepared with much care, and with special reference to the wants of our Common Schools. It comprises in a condensed form, and expressed in plain and perspicuous language, all that is useful and important in the works of the latest and best writers on this subject,—an advantage possessed in an equal degree by no similar work now in use. It is the result not only of much study and careful comparison, but of nearly twenty-five years experience in the school room, during which, the wants of the pupil and the character of books best adapted to those wants, have been carefully noted; and its adaptation to the purpose of instruction has now been thoroughly tested and approved in some of the best schools in this country. It is beautifully printed on a fine strong paper, neatly and firmly

found, and forms one of the most complete, useful, and economical school books ever offered to the public. The following are a few extracts from,

NOTICES AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

The undersigned have great satisfaction in recommending to the public, "The Principles of English Grammar," by Prof. BULLIONS, of the Albany Academy. Proceeding upon the plan of Murray, he has availed himself of the labors of the most distinguished grammarians, both at home and abroad; and made such a happy use of the helps afforded him, that we know of no work of the kind, in the same compass, which is equal to it in point of merit. Among its many excellencies, it is not the least, that Prof. B. has given a practical illustration of every principle from the beginning to the end; and the possession of his Grammar entirely supersedes the necessity of procuring a separate volume of Exercises on the Rules of Syntax. In a word, we can truly say, in the language of the author, "that there is nothing of much importance in Murray's larger Grammar, or in the works of subsequent writers, that will not be found condensed here."

JOHN LUDLOW,
ISAAC FERRIS,
ALFRED CONKLING,
T. ROMEYN BECK.

ALONZO CRITTENTON,
J. M. GARFIELD,
ROBERT MCKEE.

Albany, October 8, 1842.

[*An Extract from the Minutes of the Board of Trustees of the Albany Female Academy.*]

At a meeting of the trustees of the Albany Female Academy, held on the third instant, the book committee reported, that they had examined Professor Bullions' English Grammar, recently published in this city and that in their opinion, it contains all that is useful in the most improved treatises now in use, as well as much valuable original matter that from the copious exercises in false syntax, it will supersede the necessity of a separate volume on that subject; and recommend that it should be used as the text book in this institution.

On motion, it was resolved, that the report of the committee be accepted, and the treatise on English Grammar; by the Rev. Peter Bullions, adopted as the text book in this academy.

An Extract from the Minutes.

A. CRITTENTON, *Secretary of the
Board of Trustees, and
Principal of the Academy.*

Albany, October 13, 1834.

Sing-Sing, November 1, 1834.

DEAR SIR—I have examined your English Grammar with no small degree of satisfaction; and though I am not in the habit of recommending books in this manner, I am constrained in this case to say, I think you have conferred another important favour on the cause of education.

The great defects of most of the English grammars now in use, particularly in the omission of many necessary definitions, or in the want of perspicuity in those given, and also in the rules of construction, are in a great measure happily supplied. I am so well pleased with the result of your labors, that I have adopted it, (as I did your Greek Grammar) for both our institutions.

Yours respectfully,

NATHANIEL S. PRIME, *Principal of*
Mt. Pleasant Academy,

REV. P. BULLIONS,

The undersigned hold the responsibility of recommendation as an important one—often abused, and very frequently used to oblige a personal friend, or to get rid of an urgent applicant. They further appeal to their own conduct for years past, to show that they have only occasionally assumed this responsibility; and therefore feel the greater confidence in venturing to recommend the examination, and the adoption of the Rev. Dr. Bullions' English Grammar, as at once the most concise and the most comprehensive of any with which they are acquainted; as furnishing a satisfactory solution of nearly all the difficulties of the English language; as containing a full series of exercises in false syntax, with rules for their correction; and finally, that the arrangement is in every way calculated to carry the pupil from step to step in the successful acquisition of that most important end of education, the knowledge and use of the English language.

GIDEON HAWLEY,
T. ROMEYN BECK,
JOHN A. DIX.

March 1, 1842.

A cursory examination of the English Grammar of Dr. Bullions, has satisfied me, that it has just claims on public favour. It is concise and simple; the matter is well digested; the exercises excellent, and the typographical execution worthy of all praise. The subscriber takes pleasure in recommending it to the notice of Teachers, and of all persons interested in education.

ALONZO POTTER.

Union College, Sept. 6, 1842.

The English Grammar of the Rev. Dr. Bullions, appears to me, to be the best manual which has appeared as yet. With all the good points of Murray, it has additions and emendations, which I cannot but think would have commended themselves to Murray himself, and if I were a teacher of English Grammar, I would without hesitation prefer it to any other book of the kind,

JAMES W. ALEXANDER,

Professor of Belles Lettres, College of N. J.

Princeton, Aug. 15, 1842

Extract of a letter from REV. BENJAMIN HALE, D.D., *President of Geneva College N. Y.*

REV. DR. BULLIONS.—Dear Sir—I have lately procured a copy of your English Grammar, and given it such attention as my time has permitted, and I do not hesitate to express my conviction, that it is entitled to higher

confidence than any other English Grammar in use among us, and my wish, that it may come into general use. I have seen enough to satisfy me, that you have diligently consulted the best sources, and combined your materials with discrimination and judgment. We have, as a faculty, recommended it by placing it on the list of books to be used by candidates in preparation for this college. I have personally recommended it, and will continue to recommend it, as I have opportunity.

Very respectfully, dear sir, your friend, &c.

BENJAMIN HALE.

Genera College, July 13, 1842.

Extract of a letter from Rev. CYRUS MASON, D.D., Rector of the Grammar School in the University of New-York.

University, New-York, June 13th, 1842.

REV. DR. BULLIONS.—Dear Sir—At the suggestion of the late Mr. Leckie, head classical master in the Grammar School, we began to introduce your grammars at the opening of the present year. We have made use chiefly of the Greek and English Grammar. The result thus far is a conviction that we have profited by the change, which I was very slow to make; and I doubt not that our farther experience will confirm the good opinion we entertain of your labors in this department of learning. Wishing you a large reward, I remain, very truly yours,

C. MASON, *Rector.*

NOTICES FROM THE PUBLIC PRESS.

FROM A REPORT PRESENTED TO THE JEFFERSON Co. ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS, *on the English Grammars now in use, the merits of each, and the best method of teaching them.* By the Rev. J. R. BOYD, Principal of Black River Institute.

“2. The Grammar by Prof. BULLIONS of the Albany Academy, is constructed on the same plan as that of Brown; and while it is not so copious in its exercises, nor so full in its observations upon the language, yet it is far more simple in its phraseology, more clear in its arrangement, more free perhaps from errors or things needing improvement, and at the same time contains all that is necessary to be learned in gaining a knowledge of the structure of our language. The Rules of Syntax and observations under them, are expressed generally in the best manner. The Verb is most vividly explained, and that portion of the work contains much not to be found in other grammars, while it judiciously omits a great deal to be found in them, that is unworthy of insertion.

“It is excellent upon Prosody, and upon Poetic Diction

and gives an admirable summary of directions for correct and elegant writing, and the different forms of composition. The typography of the book cannot be too highly commended—a circumstance that greatly affects the comfort and improvement of the learner.

“This grammar is equally well adapted to the beginner and to the advanced scholar. The course of instruction which Prof. B. recommends in the use of his grammar, seems wisely adapted to secure in the readiest manner the improvement of the pupil. The book is not so large as to appal the beginner, nor so small as to be of little use to those advanced. On the whole, in my judgment, no work has yet appeared, which presents equally high claims to general use. It is copious without redundancy—it is well printed, and forms a volume pleasing to the eye. It is lucid and simple, while in the main, it is philosophically exact.—Among the old Grammars, our decided preference is given to that of Prof. Bullions.”

[From the Albany Argus.]

PRINCIPLES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.—This work besides containing a full system of grammar, is rendered more immediately useful for academies and common schools, by containing copious examples in good grammar for parsing, and in bad grammar for correction; and all of these are arranged directly under the rule to which they apply. Thus, instead of two books, which are required, (the grammar and the exercises,) the learner finds both in one, for a price at least not greater than the others.

[From the Newburgh Journal.]

BULLIONS' ENGLISH GRAMMAR.—It is not one of the smallest evils connected with our present system of common school education, that our schools are flooded with such a variety of books on elementary subjects, not only differing in arrangement, but frequently involving absurd and contradictory principles. And to no subject are these remarks more applicable, than to English Grammar. And until some one elementary work of an approved character shall be generally introduced into our common schools, we despair of realizing a general proficiency in this important branch of education. It is with pleasure, therefore, that we witness the increasing popularity of “Bullions' English Grammar.” From a familiar acquaintance with the work, from the publication of the first edition, we have no hesitation in pronouncing it the best Grammar with which we are acquainted. The perspicuity of its definitions, the correctness of its principles, the symmetry of its arrangements, as well as the neat and accurate form in which it is presented, and withal the cheapness of the work, are so many recommendations to its general use.

[From the Albany Evening Journal.]

Professor BULLIONS' English Grammar is obviously the fruit of sound and enlightened judgment, patient labor and close reflection. It partakes of the character both of an original work and of a compilation. Following the principles of Murray, and adopting in the main the plan of Lennie, the most distinguished of his successors, the aim of the author, as he states in his preface, has been *to correct what is erroneous, to retrench what is superfluous or unimportant, to compress what is prolix, to elucidate what is obscure, and to determine what is left doubtful*, in the books already in use. In laboring to accomplish this excellent design, he has contrived to condense, in very perspicuous language, within the compass of a small, handsomely printed volume, about 200 pages, and costing but 50 cents, all that is requisite in this form to the acquisition of a thorough knowledge of the grammar of our language. It contains so great a number of exercises in parsing and syntax, judiciously interspersed, as to supersede the necessity of separate manuals of exercises now in use. Among other highly useful things to be found in this book, and not usually met with in works of this nature, are some very valuable critical remarks, and a pretty long "list of improper expressions," which unhappily have crept into use in different parts of our country. Under the head of Prosody, the author has, it is believed, given a better explanation of the principles of English versification, than is to be found in any other work of this nature in this country. In short, I hazard the prediction that this will be found to be decidedly the plainest, most perfect, and most useful manual of English grammar that has yet appeared.

Z.

EXTRACTS FROM LETTERS.

The following, are extracts from letters from County Superintendents of Common Schools in the State of New-York, to whom copies of the work had been sent for examination.

From ALEXANDER FONDA, Esq. Dep. Supt. of Com. Schools, Schenectady Co.
Schenectady, March 30, 1842.

DEAR SIR—I acknowledge the receipt of a copy of your English Grammar, left upon my office desk yesterday afternoon. When in your city some three weeks since, I was presented with a copy by S. S. Randall, Esq.; from the examination I was enabled to give it, and from the opinion expressed in relation to it, by one of the oldest and most experienced teachers of this county, to whom I presented it, as well as from the knowledge I possessed by reputation of its author, I had before I received the copy from you, determined to introduce it as far as I was able, as a class book in the schools of this county.

From CHAUNCEY GOODRICH, Esq. Dep. Supt. of Com. Schools, Onondaga Co.
Canal, June 24, 1842.

DEAR SIR—Your favor of the 1st instant has just come to hand. The Grammar referred to has been received and examined. I am fully satisfied of its superior merits as a grammar for common schools, over any

other work I have seen. I shall take the earliest measures for its introduction into the schools under my supervision.

From ROSWELL K. BOURNE, *Esq. Dep. Supt. of Com. Schools, Chenango Co. Pitcher, June 30, 1842.*

DEAR SIR—Sometime since I received a copy of a work on English grammar, by the Rev. Peter Bullions, D.D. for which I am much obliged. I have given the book as close an examination as circumstances would permit. The book is well got up, and exhibits the thorough acquaintance of the author with his subject. I think it well calculated for our common schools.

From GARNSEY BEACH, *Esq. Dep. Supt. of Common Schools, Putnam Co. Patterson, July 2, 1842.*

DEAR SIR—Yours of the first ult, was received on Thursday last. As it respects your Grammar I have carefully examined it, and without entering into particulars, I consider it the best I have ever seen, and as such, I have recommended it to the several schools under my care.

From O. W. RANDALL, *Esq. Dep. Supt. of Common Schools, Oswego Co. Phoenix, July 2, 1842.*

MR. P. BULLIONS,—Dear Sir—I have for the last two weeks devoted some considerable time, in perusing your system of English Grammar, and in reply to yours, requesting my views of the work, I can cheerfully say, that its general arrangement, is admirably adapted either to the *novice* or *adept*. The § 27th and § 28th on verbs, with the attendant remarks, are highly important, and essential to the full completion of any system of grammar. The work taken together is remarkable for simplicity, lucidity and exactness, and is calculated not only to make the correct *grammarian*, but also a correct *prosodian*. Whatever may be its fate in the field, it enters with a large share of *merit* on its side, and with full as fair prospect of success as any work extant.

From W. S. PRESTON, *Esq. Dep. Supt. of Com Schools, Suffolk Co. N. Y. Patchogue, L. I. July 6, 1842.*

Prof. P. BULLIONS,—Dear Sir—Some time since I received a copy of your English Grammar, for which I am much obliged. I have devoted as much time to its perusal as circumstances would permit, and can say of it, that I believe it claims decided preference over the Grammars generally used in schools throughout this country, and indeed I may say, over the many works on that science extant.

From JAMES HENRY, *Esq. Dep. Supt. of Common Schools, Herkimer Co. Little-Falls, July 11, 1842.*

Prof. BULLIONS,—Sir—I have read with as much attention as my avocations would allow, the work you had the kindness to send me, upon English Grammar, and so far as I am capable of forming an opinion of the merits of your book, I concur generally in the views expressed in the extract from the report of M. Boyd, as contained in your circular.

From D. H. STEVENS, *Dep. Supt. of Common Schools, Franklin Co. N. Y.*
Moir, Aug. 27, 1842.

Rev. P. BULLIONS,—Dear Sir—On Wednesday the 24th instant, the committee determined upon a series of books, and I have the happiness to inform you, that your English Grammar will be reported on the first Wednesday in October at the next meeting of the Association, as the most brief, perspicuous and philosophical work, upon that subject within our knowledge.

From R. W. FINCH, *Esq. Dep. Supt. of Common Schools. Steuben Co. N. Y.*
Bath, Sept. 11, 1842.

DEAR SIR—Having at length given your English Grammar a careful perusal; and having compared it with all the modern works on the subject, which have any considerable claims to merit, I am prepared to make a more enlightened decision, and one that is satisfactory to myself. *The work has my decided preference.*

From J. W. FAIRFIELD, and CYRUS CURTISS, *Esqrs. Dep. Superintendents of Common Schools, Hudson, N. Y.*

Hudson, Sept. 15, 1842.

Rev. P. BULLIONS,—Sir—We have examined a copy of your English Grammar, with reference to the introduction of the same into our public schools, and we take pleasure in saying that the examination has proved very satisfactory. We cannot, without occupying too much space, specify the particular points of excellence which we noticed in the arrangement of the different parts, the clearness of expression and illustration, and the precise adaptation of the Rules of Syntax, to the principles previously laid down. It is sufficient to say, that we believe it to be, in all the requisites of a good school book, superior to any other English Grammar which has come under our observation.

II. THE PRINCIPLES OF LATIN GRAMMAR, &c.

This work is upon the foundation of ADAM'S LATIN GRAMMAR, so long and so well known as a text book in this country. The object aimed at was to combine with all that is excellent in the work of Adam, the important results of subsequent labors in this field,—to correct errors and supply defects,—to bring the whole up to that point which the present state of classical learning requires,—and to give it such a form as to render it a suitable part of the series. The following notices are furnished.

From REV. JAMES W. ALEXANDER, *Prof. Belles Lettres in the College of New-Jersey.*

Princeton, N. J. Aug. 15, 1842.

I have examined with some care the Latin Grammar of the Rev. Dr. Bullions. It is, if I may hazard a judgment, a most valuable work, evincing that peculiar apprehension of the pupil's necessities, which nothing but long continued practice as an instructor can produce. Among our various Latin Grammars, it deserves the place which is occupied by the best; and no teacher, as I think, need hesitate a moment about introducing it

[From the Biblical Repertory, or Princeton Review, Jan. 1842.]

THE PRINCIPLES OF LATIN GRAMMAR, &c.—This completes the series proposed by the learned author, who has now furnished us with an English, a Latin, and a Greek Grammar, which have this peculiar recommendation that they are arranged in the same order, and expressed in the same terms, so far as the differences of the languages permit. The basis of this manual is the well known Grammar of Adam, an excellent summary, but at the same time one which admitted of retrenchment, addition, and emendation, all which have been ably furnished by Dr. Bullions. We have not made a business of perusing the work laboriously, but we have looked over the whole and bestowed particular attention on certain parts; and therefore feel at liberty to recommend it with great confidence, especially to all such teachers as have been in the habit of using Adam's Grammar.

III. THE PRINCIPLES OF GREEK GRAMMAR, &c.

The object of this publication was to provide a comprehensive manual of Greek Grammar, adapted to the use of the younger, as well as to the more advanced class of students in our schools and colleges, and especially of those under the author's own care. To this end, the leading principles of Greek Grammar are exhibited in rules as few and brief as possible, so as to be easily committed to memory, and at the same time so comprehensive and perspicuous, as to be of general and easy application.

The following notices of this work, from different sources, will show the estimate formed of it by competent judges.

BULLIONS' GREEK GRAMMAR.—We have examined the second edition of Dr. Bullions' Greek Grammar, and consider it, upon the whole, the best grammar of the Greek language with which we are acquainted. The parts to be committed to memory are both concise and comprehensive; the illustrations are full without prolixity, and the arrangement natural and judicious. The present edition is considerably reduced in size from the former, without, as we apprehend, at all impairing its value.

It discovers in its compilation much labor and research, as well as sound judgment. We are persuaded that the general use of it in our grammar schools and academies would facilitate the acquisition of a thorough knowledge of the language. Judicious teachers pursuing the plan marked out by the author in his preface, would usually conduct their pupils to a competent knowledge of the language in a less time by several months than by the systems formerly in use. We therefore give it our cordial recommendation.

ELIPHALET NOTT,

R. PROUDFIT,

Union College, December 19, 1840.

ALONZO POTTER.

Extract of a letter from Rev. DANIEL D. WHEDON, A.M. Professor of Ancient Languages and Literature, in the Wesleyan University, Middleton, Ct.

Wesleyan University, March 29, 1842.

Rev. Dr. BULLIONS,—Dear Sir—Although I have not the honor of

your personal acquaintance, I take the liberty of addressing to you my thanks for your excellent Greek Grammar. Notwithstanding many personal, urgent, and interested appeals in favor of other grammars—and our literary market seems to abound with that kind of stock—the intrinsic superiority of your manual over every rival, induced me, after I saw your last edition, to adopt it in the Greek department of the Wesleyan University, and the success of my present Freshman class, amply justifies the course.

Extract of a letter from HENRY BANNISTER, A.M. Principal of the Academy in Fairfield, N. Y.

Fairfield Academy, May 12, 1842.

Rev. Doct. BULLIONS,—Sir—Sometime since I received your English and Greek Grammar, of each, one copy; and, if it is not too late, I would now return you my sincere thanks. I have not found in any work, suitable for a text book in schools, an analysis of the verb so strictly philosophical, and at the same time so easy to the learner to master and to retain when mastered, as that contained in your work. The editorial observations on government, and indeed the whole matter and arrangement of the Syntax, especially commend your work to general use in schools.

[From the Princeton Review, for Jan. 1840.]

It is with pleasure we welcome a second edition of this manual, which we continue to regard as still unsurpassed by any similar work in our language. The typography and the quality of the paper are uncommonly good. We observe valuable additions and alterations. For all that we can see, everything worth knowing in Thiersch is here condensed into a few pages. We have certainly never seen the anatomy of the Greek verb so neatly demonstrated. The Syntax is full, and presents the leading facts and principles, by rules, so as to be easily committed to memory. To learners who are beginning the language, and especially to teachers of grammar schools, we earnestly recommend this book.

[From the New-York Observer.]

BULLIONS' PRINCIPLES OF GREEK GRAMMAR, &c. 2d edition. With pleasure we hail the second edition of this valuable work, and are happy to find that the revision which it has undergone has resulted in decided improvements. Formed, as it is, on the basis of that most symmetrical of all modern grammars. Dr. Moor's Greek Grammar, which its learned author never lived to complete. It is now made to embrace not only the general rules, but all the *minutiae* essential to a critical knowledge of that ancient and elegant language. One of the chief excellencies of this model, and one that is fully retained in this grammar, is to be found in the simplicity, perspicuity, conciseness, and yet fulness of the definitions and rules for the various modifications of the language. The sense is clearly expressed, while scarcely a particle is used that could have been dispensed with. We have no hesitation in expressing the opinion, that Dr. B. has produced the most complete and useful Greek grammar that is to be found in the English language.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE SERIES.

From the Rev. JOHN LUDLOW, D.D. Provost of the University of Penn.

No one I think can ever examine the series of Grammars published by Dr. Bullions, without a deep conviction of their superior excellence. When the English Grammar, the first in the series, was published in 1834. it was my pleasure, in connexion with some honored individuals, in the city of Albany, to bear the highest testimony to its worth; that testimony, if I mistake not, received the unanimous approval of all whose judgment can or ought to influence public opinion. I have seen, with great gratification, that the 2d and 3d in the series, the Latin and Greek, have met with the same favorable judgement, which I believe to be entirely deserved, and in which I do most heartily concur.

From the Hon. ALFRED CONKLING, Judge of the United States Court in the Northern District of New-York, published in the Cayuga Patriot.

BULLIONS' SERIES OF GRAMMARS.—By the recent publication of "THE PRINCIPLES OF LATIN GRAMMAR," this *series* of grammars (English, Latin, and Greek,) is at length completed. To their preparation, Dr. Bullions has devoted many years of the best portion of his life. In the composition of these books, he has shown an intimate acquaintanceship with the works of his ablest predecessors; and while upon the one hand, he has not scrupled freely to avail himself of their labors, on the other hand, by studiously avoiding all that is objectionable in them, and by re-modelling, improving, and illustrating the rest, he has unquestionably succeeded in constructing the best—decidedly the very best—grammar, in each of the three above named languages, that has yet appeared. Such is the deliberate and impartial judgment which has been repeatedly expressed by the most competent judges, respecting the English and Greek grammars; and such, I hesitate not to believe, will be the judgment formed of the Latin grammar. But independently of the superiority of these works separately considered, they possess, collectively, the great additional recommendation of having their leading parts *arranged in the same order*, and, as far as properly can be done, *expressed in the same language*. An acquaintanceship with one of them, therefore, cannot fail greatly to facilitate the study of another, and at the same time, by directing the attention of the student distinctly to the points of agreement and of difference in the several languages, to render his acquisitions more accurate, and at the same time to give him clearer and more comprehensive views of the general principles of language. The importance of using in academies and schools of the United States none but ably written and unexceptionable school books, is incalculable; and without intending unnecessarily to depreciate the labors of others, as a friend of sound education, I cannot refrain from expressing an earnest hope of seeing this series of grammars in general use. They are all beautifully printed on very good paper, and are sold at very reasonable prices.



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